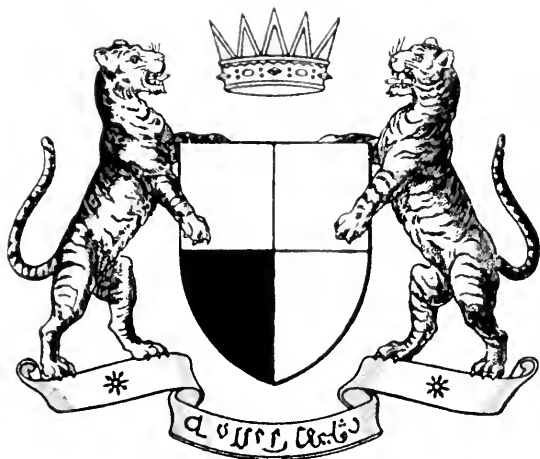
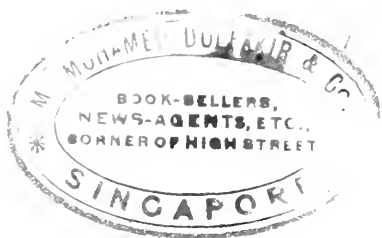


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TO THE
FEDERATED
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CUTHBERT WOODVILLE HARRISON.

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Singapore Tank Road ...	arr.	8.16 a.m., 7.14 p.m.	8.10 a.m., 7.14 p.m.
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Singapore Tank Road ...	dep.	7. 7 a.m., 7. 0 p.m.	7. 7 a.m., 7. 0 p.m. (Saturday)
Kuala Lumpur	arr.	6.53 p.m., 6.45 a.m.	7.18 p.m., 6.45 a.m. (Sunday)
Ipoh	arr.	1. 8 a.m., 1. 0 p.m.	1. 8 a.m., 1.42 p.m.
Penang	arr.	6.41 a.m., 6.23 p.m.	6.41 a.m., 8.15 p.m.

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Penang to Kuala Lumpur, or <i>vice versa</i>	15.41

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General Manager, F.M.S.R.

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THROUGH TRAIN SERVICE BETWEEN THE PRINCIPAL STATIONS.

Stations.	Bangkok Time.	Singapore Time.			
DOWN.					
Bangkok Noi ...dep.	7 00	...	} Mondays	Wednesdays	Fridays
Chumphon ... arr.	10 06	...			
" ...dep.	7 00	...	} Tuesdays	Thursdays	Saturdays or Sundays
Tung Song ... arr.	17 22	...			
" ...dep.	6 15	...	} Wednesdays	Fridays	Mondays
Padang Besar ... arr.	13 52	2 12 p.m.			
" ...dep.	...	3 0 "			
Alor Star ... arr.	...	4 47 "			
" ...dep.	...	5 3 "	} Thursdays	Saturdays	Tuesdays
Penang ... arr.	...	8 50 "			
" ...dep.	...	8 0 a.m.			
Kuala Lumpur arr.	...	6 22 p.m.			
" dep.	...	8 30 "	} Fridays	Sundays	Wednesdays
Singapore (Tank Road) arr.	...	8 16 a.m.			

A—A Restaurant Car is attached to these trains from Bangkok Noi to Padang Besar and from Prai to Johore Bahru and a Sleeping Saloon from Kuala Lumpur to Johore Bahru.

B—A Restaurant Car is attached to these trains from Prai to Johore Bahru and a Sleeping Saloon from Kuala Lumpur to Johore Bahru.

Stations.	Bangkok Time.	Singapore Time.			
DOWN.					
Singgora ...dep.	6 00	...	} Tuesdays	Thursdays	Saturdays
Padang Besar ... arr.	9 11	9 31 a.m.			
Alor " ...dep.	...	10 3 "			
Alor Star ... arr.	...	12 15 p.m.			
" ...dep.	...	2 50 "	} Wednesdays	Fridays	Sundays
Penang ... arr.	...	6 38 "			
" ...dep.	...	8 0 a.m.			
Kuala Lumpur arr.	...	6 22 p.m.			
" dep.	...	8 30 "	} Thursdays	Saturdays	Mondays
Singapore (Tank Road) arr.	...	8 16 a.m.			

A Restaurant Car is attached to these trains from Prai to Johore Bahru and a Sleeping Saloon from Kuala Lumpur to Johore Bahru.

Through Train Service between the principal stations—*contd.*

Stations.	Singapore Time.	Bangkok Time.			
UP.			<i>D</i>	<i>C</i>	<i>D</i>
Singapore (Tank Road) dep.	7 0 p.m.	...	Saturdays	Mondays	Wednesdays
Kuala Lumpur arr.	6 45 a.m.	...	Sundays	Tuesdays	Thursdays
" ... dep.	8 0 "	...			
Penang ... arr.	6 23 p.m.	...	Mondays	Wednesdays	Fridays
" ... dep.	2 25 "	...			
Alor Star ... arr.	6 30 "	...	Tuesdays	Thursdays	Saturdays
" ... dep.	7 0 a.m.	...			
Padang Besar ... arr.	9 13 "	8 53	Wednesdays	Fridays	Sundays or Mondays
" ... dep.	...	9 50			
Tung Song ... arr.	...	17 21	Thursdays	Saturdays	Tuesdays
" ... dep.	...	7 36			
Chumphon ... arr.	...	17 56	Saturdays	Sundays	Tuesdays
" ... dep.	...	6 45			
Bangkok Noi ... arr.	...	19 14			

C—A Restaurant Car is attached to these trains from Johore Bahru to Prai and from Padang Besar to Bangkok Noi and a Sleeping Saloon from Johore Bahru to Kuala Lumpur.

D—A Restaurant Car is attached to these trains from Johore Bahru to Prai and a Sleeping Saloon from Johore Bahru to Kuala Lumpur.

Stations.	Singapore Time.	Bangkok Time.			
UP.					
Singapore (Tank Road) dep.	7 0 p.m.	...	Saturdays	Mondays	Wednesdays
Kuala Lumpur arr.	6 45 a.m.	...	Sundays	Tuesdays	Thursdays
" dep.	8 0 "	...			
Penang ... arr.	6 23 p.m.	...	Mondays	Wednesdays	Fridays
" ... dep.	7 25 a.m.	...			
Alor Star ... arr.	11 6 "	...	Tuesdays	Thursdays	Saturdays
" ... dep.	11 15 "	...			
Padang Besar... arr.	1 10 p.m.	12 50	Wednesdays	Fridays	Sundays
" ... dep.	...	14 30			
Singora ... arr.	...	17 46			

A Restaurant Car is attached to these trains from Johore Bahru to Prai and a Sleeping Saloon from Johore Bahru to Kuala Lumpur.

Passengers require to change trains at Padang Besar in either direction.

Accommodation is available in the Rest Houses at Alor Star, Tung Song and Chumphon, and application should be made direct to the Lessee as far in advance as possible.

TARIFF AT ALOR STAR.

	\$	cts.
Bedroom ...	1	50
Early morning tea ...		25
Breakfast ...		60
Tiffin ...	1	00
Dinner ...	1	25
81 p. 3d.		
100 cts. = 1 dollar.		

TARIFF AT TUNG SONG AND CHUMPHON.

	Tcs.	stgs.
Early morning tea ...		50
Breakfast ...	1	50
Tiffin ...	2	00
Dinner ...	2	50
1 Tical = 1s. 8d.		
100 Satongs = 1 Tical.		

Each room at Tung Song and Chumphon Rest Houses contains two beds and the charge is Tcs. 2 per person per night, but if a passenger wishes to reserve a room for himself he will be charged Tcs. 4 per night. The Lessee will, however, provide a room for each passenger, if possible.

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CUTHBERT WOODVILLE HARRISON,
MALAYAN CIVIL SERVICE.

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“ Mislike me not for my complexion,
The shadow'd livery of the burnish'd sun.
To whom I am a neighbour and near bred.”

Merchant of Venice.

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1910. *First Impression*, 3,200 copies.
1911. *Second Impression*, 3,200 „
1920. *Third Impression*, 4,000 „

NOTE.

PART I. AND PART III. of this book describe the Malay Peninsula from North to South, from Penang to Singapore. Anyone travelling in the opposite direction must begin at the end and read backwards, but the stream of winter travellers usually leaves America and Europe in autumn for Egypt, India, Ceylon, Japan and onwards, and a slight diversion, after Colombo, at Penang will save the uninteresting voyage through Malacca Strait, make a break in seafaring, offer land travel through a country now little known to the usual tourist, and bring the traveller out at Singapore into the main stream again.

Thanks are due to Messrs. Kelly and Walsh, of Singapore, and to Mr. Kleingrothe, photographer, and to others for permission to reproduce photographs.

C. W. H.

December, 1919.

I

THROUGH THE MALAY PENINSULA FROM NORTH TO SOUTH.

By CUTHBERT WOODVILLE HARRISON.

It has become nowadays so easy and so common a venture to cross the world that the simple circumnavigation of the globe "merely for wantonness" is very rapidly ceasing to be in fashion. But as the rough places of the earth become smooth to travellers, and they no longer fear "that the gulfs will wash us down," there is growing amongst them a disposition to dwell awhile in those lands whose climate and inhabitants most differ from ours. The more completely such places are strange to us the more do they attract us, and the more isolated they have lived hitherto, the more do we feel called upon to visit them now.

To some temperaments it is matter for regret, perhaps, that the dark places of the earth are now so rapidly being lit up. Even Malaya, the land of the kris, the piratical prahu, and the bloody and treacherous Malay people, "folke ryghte felonouse

and foule and of cursed kynde," has now become a quiet middle of the world, has lost all opportunity of

" most disastrous chances,

Of moving accidents by flood and field ;

Of hairbreadth scapes i' the imminent deadly breach ;

Of being taken by the insolent foe

And sold to slavery ; "

Matter of regret, perhaps, to some, but to most people, and more particularly to those who live there, it is matter for very profound satisfaction. Over one thousand miles of railway and two thousand five hundred miles of road deal shrewd blows at romance, it is true, but after all, there are very few temperaments nowadays which really crave after being sold into slavery by insolent foes. This kind of uncomfortable romance, involving a continual series of moving accidents, is somewhat blown upon, and people seem to prefer something a little less strenuous. We travel nowadays far more often and far further than our ancestors, but we do not, as they say they did, hanker for hardships. We like to see new countries, new peoples and new ways of living, but we like a little comfort thereto, and we like to know that we shall be as reasonably safe in person and property as may be. In the Federated Malay States we are sure of all these things, and the country does not lose attractiveness from that fact. We are not so sure of it in other Oriental lands in these times. There is no unrest in Malaya. The country is perfectly quiet and the people contented. The object

of all classes in British Malaya is not to covet other men's goods nor to desire other men's positions in life, but still to labour truly to get their own living. Neither Malays nor Chinese are of a litigious nature. The Malays especially have a strong contempt for the hedge-lawyer, and, as Muhammadans, sedition is especially abhorrent to them. It is a very rich country, full of valuable mineral deposits, and also one of those gardens of earth which when tickled laughs itself into harvest. The people in it are either connected with the tin industry or the planting industry. If they are foreign to the soil their object is to make a fortune from it and retire home: if they are native Malays their object is to continue in that state of peasant proprietorship in which they have always so far found a sufficient happiness. There is no street in any town which is not perfectly safe for Europeans who conduct themselves properly, but, as elsewhere, if people insist on prying into the dark and unsavoury places which exist all the world over in every considerable town, and there get into trouble, they will have only themselves to blame.

The country roads, too, are perfectly safe—occasionally one hears of dacoities, known to the local penal code as gang-robberies, but these are usually attacks on persons who foolishly carry about large sums of money without police protection. The Chinese population provides such gang-robbers as there are, but it is pretty certain that no one is

held-up by them without their having information beforehand that the venture is worth while.

Nobody goes about armed to the teeth or prepared for desperate deeds. The Malay population is not allowed to carry the kris any longer and the Chinese have never gone armed. The good old days of Malayan romance, when all the men were pirates and all the women princesses, have yielded to a time of peacefulness, very grateful to the modern traveller and very discouraging to the swashbuckler of old.

You will not find servility, but you will find that more valuable quality a universal and ready disposition to oblige you merely because you are an *orang puteh*, and because, happily for your present comfort and pleasure, the white people whom these Asiatics have known have treated them with courtesy and kindness. The white man has a good name amongst the other races here, and one hopes that travellers of the white race will be sensible enough not to resent being asked to remember that fact in their passing. Courtesy and restraint of manner is far more usually practised in the leisurely East than in the hustling West, and life in the East, and travel there, are most noticeably made more pleasant by receipt and exercise thereof.

Up to some thirty years ago those of the Native States of the Malay Peninsula which are now the Federated Malay States, had little or no dealings with the civilisations lying east and west of them. They were unknown to history, scarce visited by

other races, except the Chinese, heard of only as the wild lands forming the hinterland of Penang, Malacca, and Singapore. Anyone who entered them did so at his own risk, and if he fell into the hands of the spoiler there was none to deliver him. Their reputation in the adjoining British Colonies which had been carved out of them was not so fearsome as it was in the great world where they were tarred with the same brush as the sea-robbers from the islands of the Malay Archipelago. In the Straits Settlements they were known certainly as places somewhat unsafe to visit, but for treachery and blood-thirstiness they were never comparable to the islands further south from which the sea-rovers came. Merely they were shockingly misgoverned by rulers perpetually infirm of purpose. But before we get to the present generation of Malaya let us hark back to earlier times and attempt to get a general view of its past.

**The Peninsula
in History.**

The people who are now called the aborigines, that is, the Negrito and semi-Negrito wild tribes who inhabit the jungles, are the first inhabitants of the Peninsula known to its history. It was with representatives of these people that the Malays from Sumatra, about the middle of the seventeenth century, made those covenants by which they first obtained possession of Rembau and other parts of what is now the State of Negri Sembilan. But there existed even before the Negrito the pre-historic men of whom traces are found all over the world. Their stone implements may be seen in the museum at Taiping. They are similar to those in

many another museum, but probably there are not many other countries where one is able still to see how precisely the axeheads were fitted to the haft. All over Malaya, however, one may see in common use the little iron axehead whipped on to a spring shaft, which is employed by all Malays and all aborigines for cutting down jungle. The shape of the little iron axehead used to-day is identical with that of the little stone axehead used many thousand years ago by the stone-age man. Java is not far from the Malay Peninsula, and it was in Java that the skull of the "pithecanthropos" was discovered. It is not the least improbable that this primitive ancestor of human kind used the stone axeheads shown in the museums, and if he did it is practically certain that he whipped them on with rattan to a light shaft precisely as the Negritos and the Malays do to-day with their little *beliong*. As a tool to be wielded by a small man not overstrong and disinclined for severe exertion the *beliong* is ideal, and probably Malaya has to thank neolithic man for the invention. But this leads us away from the history of men to the history of man's implements and we must return to our Negritos. There are several divisions recognised, but the generic terms by which these wild tribes are usually called are Semang or Sakai. As is remarked in the official "Papers on Malay Subjects":

The Peninsula presents us with a curious historical museum showing every grade of primitive culture. It gives us the humble Negrito, who has not learnt to till

the ground but wanders over the country and lives from hand to mouth on the products of the jungle. It gives us the same Negrito after he has learnt the rudiments of art and agriculture from his Sakai neighbours. It gives us the Sakai who grows certain simple fruits and vegetables and is nomadic in a far slighter degree than the primitive Semang, for a man who plants is a man who lives some time in one place and therefore may find it worth his while to build a more substantial dwelling than a mere shelter for a night. Here, however, primitive culture stops. Even the man who has learnt to plant a crop in a clearing must abandon his home when the soil begins to be exhausted. The boundary between primitive culture and civilisation cannot be said to be reached until habitations become really permanent and until a comparatively small area can support a large population. That boundary is crossed when a people learn to renew the fertility of land by irrigation, by manuring, or by a proper system of rotation of crops. The Malays with their system of rice planting—the irrigated rice, not hill rice—have crossed that boundary. But no Sakai tribe outside the Negri Sembilan has ever done so.

The Sakai and Semang may be called the living monuments of the country. In other relics of antiquity it is very poor. The traces of its earliest civilisation are best described, again in the “Papers on Malay Subjects,” as follows:—

Ancient inscriptions have been found in Kedah, in the northern district of Province Wellesley, in the central district of Province Wellesley, and in the

Island of Singapore. That in *Kedah* has been completely deciphered: it is a *Buddhist* formula such as might have been written up in the cell or cave of an ascetic. That in the north of *Province Wellesley* was carved on a pillar that seemed to form part of a little temple: it has not been completely deciphered, but from the form of the written character it is believed to date back to the year 400 A.D., and to be the oldest inscription in this part of the world—unless, indeed, the *Kedah* writing is slightly more ancient. The rock carvings at *Cheroh Tokun* near *Bukit Mertajam* belong to various ages and are too worn away to be read in connected sentences; but the oldest seems to go back to the fifth century and another to the sixth century A.D. As the monument in *Singapore* was blown up by the *Public Works Department* in order to make room for some town improvements it is no longer available for study, but from a rough copy made before its destruction it appears to have been in the ancient *Kawi* character of *Java* or *Sumatra*. It probably dates back to the thirteenth or fourteenth century, A.D. Another inscription, presumably of the same class, is to be seen at *Pulau Karimun*, near *Singapore*.

Near *Pangkalan Kempas*, on the *Linggi river*, there are a number of broken monuments which, though they seem to be of comparatively recent date, are of considerable interest. On a curious four-sided pillar there are four inscriptions, two in clear-cut *Arabic* and two in the fainter lettering of an unknown script. Below these inscriptions there is a circular hole cut right through the pillar, and just large enough to permit of

the passage of a man's arm—it is indeed believed that this pillar (which has been much used for oaths and ordeals) will tighten round the arm of any man who is rash enough to swear falsely when in its power. Near this pillar is another cut stone on which the lettering of some old non-Arabic inscription can be dimly seen. As there are many other fragments of carved stone that go to make up the kēramat or holy place of which the inscriptions form part, the Malays have invented a legend that these monuments represent the petrified property of an ancient saint—his spoon, his sword and his buckler. Muhammadan zeal seems also to have carved the holy name of Allah on the sword of the saint, and to have converted the first line of the inscriptions into the well-known formula, "In the Name of God, the Merciful, the Compassionate." Fragments of other monuments may be seen lying low in the swamp near which this Linggi kēramat is built up.

Besides these inscriptions traces of ancient non-Malayan civilisations have been found: (1) In some curious old bronzes, resembling bells, that have been dug up at Klang, in Selangor: (2) in a little bronze image of a walking buddha that was discovered in a Tanjong Rambutan mine at a depth of some sixty feet below the surface: (3) in an old Bernam tomb beautifully constructed of thin slabs of stone and containing some broken pottery and three cornelian beads, and (4) in pottery and iron tools that are continually being met with in old mining workings. More impressive, however, than any of these small relics are the galleries, stopes and shafts of the old mines at Selinsing in

Pahang—the work of a race that must have possessed no small degree of mechanical skill. Who were the men who left these remains? If it be true (as the condition of the Selinsing workings seems to suggest) that the mines were suddenly abandoned in the very midst of the work that was being done, such a fact would lend further support to the natural conjecture that the miners were foreign adventurers who exploited the wealth of the Peninsula and did not make the country their permanent home. The Malays say that these alien miners were “men of Siam.” Is this true? Students are apt to forget that “men of Siam,” seven or eight centuries ago, would refer to the great and highly civilised Cambodian race who occupied the valley of the Menam before the coming of the “Thai” from whom the present Siamese are descended. It is therefore probable enough that the Malays are right, and that the mining shafts of Selinsing are due to the people who built the magnificent temples of Angkor. Further evidence, if such evidence is needed, may be found in the fact that the Sakai of certain parts of Pahang use numerals that are neither Siamese nor Malay nor true Sakai, but Mon-Khmer.

The general conclusion to be drawn from the traces of ancient culture in the Peninsula is that the southern portions of the country were often visited but never really occupied by any civilised race until the Malays came in A.D. 1400. Such a conclusion would not, however, be true of the Northern States, of Kedah, Kelantan, Trang and Singgora. There we find undoubted evidence of the existence of powerful Buddhist

States like that of Langkasuka, the kingdom of Alang-kah suka, or of the Golden Age of Kedah, still remembered as a fairyland of Malay romance. This Langkasuka was a very ancient State indeed. It is mentioned in Chinese records as Langgasu as far back as A.D. 500, and was then reputed to be four centuries old; it appears (in Javanese literature) as one of the Kingdoms overcome by Majapahit in A.D. 1377; its name probably survives to this day in the "Langkaw" islands off the Kedah coast. But the ancient States of Northern Malaya lie outside the scope of this pamphlet; they are interesting to us because they probably sent small mining colonies to the south and thus claimed some sort of dominion over the rest of the Peninsula. The great Siamese invasion changed all that. By crushing the northern States during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries A.D. it ruined their little southern colonies and left the territories of Perak, Johor, Malacca and Pahang a mere no-man's-land that the Malays from Sumatra could occupy without resistance.

The coming of the Malays to the Peninsula cannot be dated by archaeological remains of any kind, but it seems to be established from tradition that, leaving Palembang in Sumatra, some Malays settled in Singapore about 1360 A.D. under Sang Nila Utama. The latest authoritative account of this settlement describes the ancient kingdom of Singapore or Tamasek as a mere offshoot of the State of Palembang, which did not last for any length of time but came to a sudden and terrible end in the year of the great Javanese invasion, 1377 A.D. The legends connected

with the fall of the city of Singapore on this occasion suggest that it was effected with terrible bloodshed.

The fugitive Malays from Singapore fled to Malacca, and by 1405 A.D. had established there a kingdom sufficiently important to send envoys to China and to be recognised by that nation. From the earliest times, even as early as 454-464 A.D. until 1509 A.D., when the Portuguese from the West appeared, there is no doubt that the nation which most impressed the Malays with a sense of its power and riches was China, and the Malays of those early days doubtless regarded China in much the same light as their descendants do Europe to-day. For a hundred years Malacca seems to have had a peaceable existence, disturbed at last in 1509 by the arrival of Admiral Diego Lopez de Sequeira. Though the first Portuguese enterprise was not a success, in 1511 the attack under Alfonso de Albuquerque, the great Viceroy of India, finally gave the Portuguese the complete control of the Straits of Malacca, and consequently of the trade all along the West Coast of the Malay Peninsula, but the inland parts remained inaccessible, and the Portuguese made no attempt to penetrate them. The unfortunate Malay dynasty of the kings of Malacca seems to have led a very uncomfortable existence, for they were continually harried by the Portuguese, and perpetually compelled to shift up and down the Peninsula. The strangers who had come from the West routed them out of every settlement as soon as it began to look like a menace to the Portuguese power

But the Portuguese themselves were being attacked by the Dutch. In 1606 the Dutch fleet bombarded Malacca and nearly captured it and in 1641 the city finally fell. On this occasion the Malays assisted the Dutch from Johor, where the Malay kingdom had managed to raise its head again as the Portuguese power waned. Holland dominated the Malay East from 1641, but made no attempt to do more than maintain trading settlements. Some poor administration of the Peninsula was carried on by the Malay princes in Pahang, Johor and Perak. It was about this time that a band of Malays from Sumatra effected a peaceful penetration to the hinterland of Malacca and established themselves, a highly democratic community, in what is now the Negri Sembilan. These were a remarkable people. They seem to have fraternised with the wild tribes they found in the country, and to have settled down to possess it both without fighting to get it and without fighting to keep it. Probably their numbers and organisation were too formidable for Peninsular Malay princes to molest. Besides this these princes began to be harried by the far more warlike Bugis Malays from the Malay Archipelago, and though the Dutch supported them against the Bugis the struggles between the two were absorbing.

In 1826 the British had defeated
Institution of British Control. the Dutch and were firmly seated in Singapore, Penang, Malacca and the Dindings, and in that year concluded with Siam a Treaty which recognised this British position. The

same Treaty recognised the State of Kedah and the more northerly States as Siamese, threw open to commerce by British and Siamese the apparently independent States of Kelantan and Tringganu, and specifically left the government of the State of Perak to its Malay ruler. From this date until 1871 the British refrained from any intervention in the Malay hinterlands of the British Settlements, with one exception, when an expedition was sent in 1832 to the interior beyond Malacca and there succeeded in acquiring territory necessary to insure the safety of that town.

In 1867 the East India Company ceased to administer the British Settlements in the Straits of Malacca, and the Crown Colony system came into existence there. The new Government found itself at last forced to take measures beyond its own borders to check first the piratical enterprises fitted out in Malay territory and second the anarchy in that territory which nurtured and fostered piracy. The two States of Perak and Selangor had at this time an evil pre-eminence over the State of Pahang and the State now called Negri Sembilan. The younger Malays in Selangor at this time suffered from a superfluity of naughtiness, and not only tried to make their Malay Government, under the Regent Tunku Dia Udin, acting for an aged Sultan, impotent, but also indulged themselves in piracies to the detriment of British subjects. The first act of which the British took severe notice was a piracy near Kuala Selangor. For this the Malays in the old Dutch fort—still remaining

as the crown of a beautiful village—were shelled by H.M.S. *Rinaldo*. The Malays specifically brought this upon themselves, but their general misgovernment so crippled trade and intercourse between Malay and British territory, that on a protest and request for definite British action from the British trading community the Straits Government sent an officer to investigate the position up country. He visited Selangor and went on to Perak. In Selangor he confirmed the existence of a practical anarchy combined with some desire on the part of the more responsible Malays for British intervention. In Perak he found a state of civil war prevailing amongst the Chinese in the tin mines of Larut and a dispute in the Malay reigning family as to which member of it was really Sultan.

Very shortly after the visit of this officer the Regent of Selangor, not content with tending the boiling pot there, moved over into the Negri Sembilan and laid claim to part of it. This caused the rulers to complain to the British and to ask for protection against the pretensions of Selangor. So here the British Government had the alarming position on the western side of the Peninsula forced upon its notice, and British intervention, of one kind or another—armed punitive, or peacefully penetrative—became inevitable. Definite action was, however, avoided, though the Governor of the Settlements, Sir Harry Ord, shortly before retiring, visited both Negri Sembilan and Selangor, and gave pacific advice to all parties.

No real change took place in the situation, until, in 1873, the new Governor, Sir Andrew Clarke, brought out with him from the British Government at home definite instructions to employ such influence as Great Britain possessed with the Malay Princes to rescue "these fertile and productive countries from the ruin which must befall them if the present disorders continued unchecked." Fertile of feuds and productive of piracy so far, the Malay States—or at least their rulers, for the commonalty were nothing accounted of—were now to realise that the good old days of rapine, lust, murder, bankruptcy, stagnation, debt-slavery and all other ill results of incompetent government must end. The realisation took some time. During 1873 the Chinese had maintained a struggle of factions in Larut, which involved the British in employing gunboats and a small force of Indians specially recruited under a British officer, Captain Speedy, to help the Sultan's representative, the Mantri of Larut. It was not until June 20th, 1874, that the Perak chiefs, who were still quarrelling over the succession to the Sultanate, signed the Pangkor Treaty. The Treaty of Pangkor provided that the Sultan of Perak, who, according to the British, was the Raja Muda Abdullah, son of the last undisputed Sultan, should "receive and provide a suitable residence for a British officer, to be called Resident, who shall be accredited to his court, and whose advice must be asked and acted upon in all questions other than those touching Malay religion and custom"; and it further provided that

“the collection and control of all revenues and the general administration of the country be regulated under the advice of the Resident.”

Hardly had the Governor concluded the Treaty of Pangkor for Perak, when he had to intervene for Selangor. Here the young bloods of the royal family, whose seat was on the Langat (or Jugra) River, had pirated a boat belonging to British subjects of Malacca, “a boyish ebullition of spirits,” in the opinion of the Sultan. Sir Andrew visited the Sultan. He quite agreed that piracy must be ended, promised to have the pirates caught ; did, in effect, so arrange, and duly sent a trustworthy *kris* of his own with which they were executed after the Malay fashion. This consists in inserting the point of a long, straight kris at the side of the neck near the collarbone and exercising a vertical pressure upon it until it reaches and pierces the heart.

In November, 1874, more definite control by the British was inaugurated by the appointment of British Residents, with Assistant Residents, to Perak and to Selangor, and an Assistant Resident to the Malay territory now called Negri Sembilan. These appointments, though the necessary sequence of the Treaty of Pangkor, were to the bad old ruling classes in Perak entirely unwelcome, and it was not long before their opposition began to show. They had put up with passing visits from Governors, passing visits from officials and passing tours by a Commission, but the abiding presence of a British Resident, active, penetrating, keen and fearless, as was Mr. J. W. W. Birch,

they took very much amiss. In May, 1875, the new Governor, Sir William Jervois, visited Perak, saw the Sultan and the chiefs and decided that far from allowing the power of the Resident to rust for want of use it was necessary to burnish it anew. To this end he prepared, and caused the Sultan of Perak to sign, a proclamation by which the Residents became Commissioners with increased powers. The best narrative of the result of this action is contained in one of Sir Frank Swettenham's books. Succinctly put, it resolved itself into the assassination on November 2nd, 1875, by the Perak Malays, of the Resident, Mr. J. W. W. Birch, at Pasir Salak on the river Perak, whither he had gone to distribute and post up the proclamation. The Assistant Resident, Mr. F. Swettenham, escaped the same fate by the narrowest of margins. The Governor from Singapore sent orders to Penang for the despatch of a small force to strengthen the escort which had accompanied Mr. Birch, but it proved inadequate to the suppression of what had become a general disturbance, and finally the best part of two thousand troops were brought into operation and were successful in catching some of the murderers and generally in forcing order upon the country. For the ruling caste of the Malay, this assassination proved the worst investment, for it resulted in the banishment of Sultan Abdullah with three of his principal chiefs, the hanging of three other chiefs, who were directly concerned, and the imprisonment for life of yet others not so closely implicated. The military forces were eventually

withdrawn entirely in favour of an armed police and never since have the Malays of Perak shown the slightest restiveness under what is really British rule.

It was fortunate for the British that the events in Perak did not set the whole country in revolt, but it must be remembered that the Perak chiefs struck for their own hands alone, and had not the bulk of the population with them. The lower orders among Malays have ever been and are still desirous of peace and a quiet life, and it must have been of little moment to them whether the British or their own rulers collected the taxes and ruled the country, so long as neither collection nor ruling were overdone. Thus, beyond a flare-up in the Negri Sembilan, put down with a heavy hand at once, nothing happened outside Perak, and the three Western States have reposed in unshaken peace ever since, with no political history worth mention.

The Eastern State, however, Pahang, set apart by nature from the rest of the Peninsula by a long chain of high mountains, covered with dense forest and fenced about against the trading world by the China Sea breakers on its shallow river bars, remained a purely Independent Malay State until 1881, as Kelantan and Tringganu did until 1909. But in 1881 its Sultan not only connived at certain ill-treatment of a British subject of Chinese origin, but refused satisfaction when this was demanded. Advice, however, from his royal cousin of Johore, induced him to give way and even to ask for a British

Resident. Such an officer was accordingly appointed. Anyone wishing to get a good idea of life in Pahang at the foot of the throne in those days should consult the books of Sir Hugh Clifford, who was Assistant Resident. In Pahang the same causes brought about the same results as in Perak. A Malay faction headed by important chiefs and possibly expectant of the active sympathy of the Sultan, raised a rebellion, known as the Pahang disturbance. This was crushed by means of Indian troops or armed police from the Western States, after a dragging campaign to the length of which the jungly characteristics of the country and the skulking tactics of Malay warfare contributed. Pahang then settled down again and made no more history until, on July 1, 1896, it joined the States of Perak, Selangor and Negri Sembilan in a treaty with Great Britain which constituted the Federated Malay States. By this treaty all the States accepted one *Resident-General, but retained each its own Resident, and all bound themselves to unite in maintaining a regular armed force for the protection of the Federated Malay States, and if need arose for aiding the defence of the British colony of the Straits Settlements. Periodically the Malay Rulers and their chiefs of the four States meet in Federal Council their British High Commissioner (the Governor of the Straits Settlements), their Chief Secretary and their Residents, and there take counsel for the good of their territories—a change indeed from the days when they took counsel for nothing but their own personal advantage and came

* Title since changed to Chief Secretary to Government.

to conclusions very far removed from their own best interests.

Political position in Peninsula to-day. The political distinctions obtaining to-day in the Malay Peninsula are rather confusing for strangers, and the assonance of "Straits" and "States" does not make them clearer. Some short explanation of them is desirable here. The Peninsula lies between the Straits of Malacca, on the west, and the China Sea, on the east. The Straits of Malacca are so called because, about half way down them, on the Peninsula, lie the town and territory of Malacca, in old days the only European settlement in the Peninsula, and indeed at one time the whole of what is now called Malaya was commonly known as Malacca and so appeared on the maps. On the map attributed to Leonardo da Vinci it is called Malaga. The Peninsula now belongs partly to various Malay States and partly to Great Britain. When the British had conquered Malacca town from the Dutch, and had obtained from Malay rajas the islands of Penang and Singapore, they named these settlements the Straits Settlements, after the Straits of Malacca on which they lie, and administered them first as part of the possessions of the East India Company and later as the Crown Colony of the Straits Settlements, which name now includes all the British territory in the Malay Peninsula. This British territory, this "Straits Settlements," consists of :—

(a.) Penang, Prince of Wales Island and its capital, officially known as George Town, and Province Wellesley, Penang being an island on

the west coast at the north of the Peninsula, and Province Wellesley, a strip of territory on the Peninsula itself, opposite Penang.

(*b.*) The Dindings, a few small islands and another piece of mainland opposite them, with a magnificent deep water harbour between.

(*c.*) Malacca, further south, consisting of Malacca town and a piece of the mainland of the Peninsula.

(*d.*) Singapore, an island at the extreme south of the Peninsula.

These four Straits Settlements, Penang and Province Wellesley, the Dindings, Malacca, Singapore, are the original and still the only British territory in the Malay Peninsula. You will find them bordered red on the map.

The rest of the Peninsula, bordered yellow and green, is Malay territory, protected by Great Britain.

This Malay territory is cut up into a number of Malay States, each under its Malay Sultan or Raja, and their relative position can be seen on the map. They are named Johor, Perak, Selangor, Negri Sembilan, Pahang, Kedah, Kelantan, Tringganu, Perlis. Of these Johor has, ever since the founding of Singapore, been under British protection in the sense that it has had from the British a guarantee of integrity of territory and freedom of self-administration as against any other nation. Between 1874 and 1888 Perak, Selangor, Negri Sembilan and Pahang became British-protected, each receiving a British Resident. Before 1896 they had, almost insensibly, become British-administered,

and in 1896 these four States federated themselves under a British Resident-General, but retained each its own Resident. The Governor of the Straits Settlements on that occasion took the title of High Commissioner for the Federated Malay States. British protection in their case means, and has meant for some time, direct administration and complete control, save only in matters affecting the Muhammadan religion.

The Federated Malay States are denoted on the map by a yellow band surrounding them.

In 1909 Siam ceded to Great Britain her suzerainty over Kedah, Kelantan, Tringganu, and Perlis. Great Britain, having assumed a Protectorate over them, is now assured of the paramountcy of the Peninsula, and has appointed an adviser to each of these three States.

The modern name by which the whole Peninsula is known is *Malaya*. Not so very long ago it used to be called "*Malay*."

"The flower that in the gardens of Malay is called the mistress of the night."

But to-day "*Malaya*" is used to express the Malay term *tunah Malayu*, "*Malay land*" and "*Malay*" is the adjective describing its inhabitants. The term "*British Malaya*" is used to express the whole sphere within which British influence is paramount, practically the whole of the Peninsula, and the exact political position to-day may be tabulated thus:—

THE COLONY OF THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.	Penang and Province	
	Wellesley.	
	The Dindings.	
	Malacca.	
	Singapore.	
	British Territory.	

THE FEDERATED MALAY STATES.	{ Perak. Selangor. Negri Sembilan Pahang.	{ British pro- tected and administered.	} Malay Territory.
OTHER MALAY STATES.	{ Kedah. Kelantan. Tringganu. Johor. Perlis.	{ British pro- tected and advised.	

and their Governments are as follows :—

THE COLONY OF THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.

His Excellency the Governor.

THE FEDERATED MALAY STATES.

The High Commissioner.

The Chief Secretary to Government.

The British Resident of Perak.	His Highness the Sultan of Perak.
The British Resident of Selangor.	His Highness the Sultan of Selangor.
The British Resident of Negri Sembilan.	His Highness the Yam Tuan Besar of the Negri Sembilan.
The British Resident of Pahang.	His Highness the Sultan of Pahang.

OTHER MALAY STATES.

The High Commissioner.

The British Adviser to the Sultan of Kedah.	His Highness the Sultan of Kedah.
The British Adviser to the Government of Kelantan.	His Highness the Sultan of Kelantan.
The British Agent, Tringganu.	His Highness the Sultan of Tringganu.
The British Adviser to the Government of Perlis.	His Highness the Raja of Perlis.
The British General Adviser to the Government of Johor.	His Highness the Sultan of Johor.

For the Colony of the Straits Settlements there is a Legislative Council. For the Federated Malay

States there is a Federal Council and for each of the States a State Council.

Both the Colony of the Straits Settlements and the Federated Malay States are divided up into territorial units called districts which are administered by British District Officers.

The traveller will find that for his purposes the Federated Malay States (Perak, Selangor, Negri Sembilan and Pahang) are best worth visiting, though the Government railway runs through Johor, Kedah and Perlis and there are also motor roads in these States. Neither the road nor the railway system in these States, however, can compare with those of the Federated Malay States, which have 732 miles of railway and 2,344 miles of motor road. This makes them easy to visit, either from Penang or from Singapore. From Penang, the railway runs to Bangkok in Siam, and thence will eventually reach Burma. A line is also being constructed from Pahang through Kelantan with the same objectives.

"All very well," you say, "but how do we get to Perák" (you are sure to call it that, but the inhabitants call it Pera') and Selángor (accent the second) and Negri Sembílan (do not call it Negri Sembilan, for it is pronounced S'mbílan) and the other places?"

Easily enough, for numerous lines run to Singapore and Penang from London, Marseilles and many another port. Certainly it is 8,000 miles or more overseas and takes three weeks from Marseilles, but it comes just in the middle of the grand tour between Ceylon and China or Japan and you ought not to

miss it. You can rush through it in 24 hours by rail if you like, or take the inside of a fortnight over it, leaving one mail steamer at Penang and catching another at Singapore or *vice versa*. There is no difficulty in getting out there at all, and we may take it for granted that you will surmount the not very difficult voyage from Europe to Penang whether after turning aside to India and Ceylon or not.

Malay territory does not begin until

At Penang. Parit Buntar railway station is reached, but a few words of instruction as to Penang may be useful. The probable, if not the only possible, permutations and combinations of the traveller arriving at Penang are four only.

(a) Outward bound (and therefore arriving by steamer) intending to spend one night at least in Penang.

(b) Outward bound, intending to catch the first available train for the Malay Peninsula and not staying at all in Penang.

(c) Homeward bound (arriving by rail), intending to spend one night at least in Penang.

(d) Homeward bound (arriving by rail), intending to catch a steamer and not stay at all in Penang.

We will place you in category (a) first and imagine you arriving from sea in a liner. Some boats go alongside Swettenham pier, some anchor in the roads, and the latter are shortly



KELING GOH, *Photographer*.

NIBONG TEBAL, BOUNDARY BETWEEN BRITISH AND MALAY TERRITORY

surrounded by a fleet of sampans. These little boats look extraordinarily unsafe as they dance up and down on the slight sea which usually prevails, but in truth they are the safest craft in the harbour, it being impossible to upset them and not easy to sink them in collision. The agents' launch will also come alongside and most people use that to go ashore. You have decided to go to an hotel and thence start the next morning by the express at 8 a.m. There are no difficulties in this plan. Baggage simply accompanies its owner or the hotel porter to the hotel and leaves with him the next morning for the railway station. Here starts the first "train," which is a steam launch plying between the Island of Penang and the Malay mainland, taking half-an-hour over the trip. You book right through from Penang for any station between Penang and Singapore, whether on main line or branch lines. The regulations as to breaking journey and other information will be found in the passenger train service announcements, and there are the usual arrangements for leaving luggage for which the usual receipt is issued. If you have any difficulty in making the porters understand you the station master will interpret. After taking your ticket do not wander about looking for the railway platform. There is no such thing, its place being taken by the jetty across the road, opposite the booking office. At the seaward end of the jetty lies the railway launch, and it will start to time just as a train does. Once you hand over your luggage to the

railway staff, either at the booking office or the railway jetty, and see it labelled, it is safe. Its subsequent handlings on the jetty, on to the launch, off the launch and on to the train on the mainland do not concern you, nor should you fee any person whomsoever for attending to it. Moreover, it is not the general custom here to tip railway porters. The railway staff are forbidden to accept gratuities, as no doubt they are also forbidden in other lands, but in Malaya they are actually unused to receiving them, for the practice of tipping porters is not at all general. The unbought civility of the railway employés is therefore the more creditable to them. The traveller who has been in India and thence come on to Malaya will be very agreeably surprised at the absence of that swarm of cadging servants, porters and coolies which makes his life a burden in many parts of India. It will be his own fault if Malaya is so spoiled in the future, for at present it suffers from no such curse.

If you are in category (b) you are probably in a hurry and want to know how quickest to get from your steamer, arrived perhaps at 6 a.m., so as to catch the train leaving at 8 a.m. Your quickest way is undoubtedly to put yourself and your baggage into a sampan and make by sea towards the railway station. You cannot well miss this. Its tower on the sea front is the highest point of building in Penang and has a clock in it. Land at the jetty next to the railway jetty—they will not let you land at the railway jetty—and have your baggage carried by coolies on to the railway jetty, get it labelled there

and then buy your ticket at the booking office over the way.

In category (c) you have no trouble. You and your baggage go in rikishas to the hotel, and the hotel people put it on board next day or whenever you leave Penang.

But if you fall into category (d) the way is not smooth, for responsibility ceases for the railway when a passenger leaves their jetty and the shipping companies acknowledge none until he is on board. Our traveller, therefore, lands on the railway jetty and wonders what he is to do next to get on board his steamer, either already arrived or expected. As the railway will not allow their jetty to be used by sampans, and have, perhaps for that reason, not built any steps to it to accommodate the rise and fall of the tide, it is necessary to transport one's baggage and one's self to some other jetty a short distance along the sea front. This is probably best done by delivering the baggage over to the outside coolies who frequent the railway jetty's landward end. To this the baggage is run on small trucks by the railway porters. The outside coolies will take your baggage to the other jetty safely enough, especially if you are with it, and once arrived there you should place it at the seaward end and then arrange either to put it on the agents' launch or to have it taken aboard by a sampan. In the latter case you or someone must go in charge.

We should not, however, blame but rather commend the wary traveller who wired or wrote beforehand to

an agent in Penang, say Messrs. Allen Dennys & Co., Cook & Sons' local goods representative, told him his train or boat of arrival, and asked him to take over the baggage, ship it, or train it and collect charges. That saves all worry and mental distress in handling baggage with a crowd of people who do not speak your language, whose language you do not speak, and moreover it leaves you free to run round the town of Penang if you have any time to spare between train and steamer.

To the experienced traveller no doubt these observations will be superfluous. But all travellers are not experienced, and we do not want you to set foot in the Peninsula in a state of fume and fret or to shake off its mud in a fury when you are leaving it. The directions given may save you some inconvenience.

**Starting
Southwards
from Penang.**

On reaching the mainland the railway launch runs alongside the wharf and the passengers walk across to the waiting train. Baggage is handled by railway porters and there is no need to look after it, if you have had it labelled in Penang. Hand luggage will also be carried for you by porters and you are not expected to tip them. The first twenty miles of the line and the first three-quarters of an hour of the train are through the British territory of Province Wellesley, a strip of land ceded by Kedah in 1798 and since that date administered from Penang, which latter was bought from Kedah in 1785.

To the East you see the hills of the main range standing afar off. There is little doubt that the word

Malayu, the native word for our adjective "Malay," is derived from the Sanskrit *Malaya*, a chain of mountains, for to new arrivals the hills are the most striking points in the first prospect of the Malay Peninsula or of Sumatra. If you are starting on your journey by the express in the morning you will watch the mists lazily winding their white wreaths about the blue distances. These mists represent the steam rising from the ground as the early sun begins to draw out the moistures left by the rain and the dew overnight. By nine o'clock on a bright morning they are all gone—

"The charm dissolves apace ;
And as the morning steals upon the night,
Melting the darkness—"

the mists get them up from their oozy beds and take strange shapes.

"Sometime we see a cloud that's dragonish,
A vapour sometime like a bear or lion,
A towered citadel, a pendent rock,
A forked mountain or blue promontory
With trees upon't, that nod into the world
And mock our eyes with air."

Every morning this drama of the struggle between the sun in splendour and the mists in strength is witnessed. On some days in the depth of the wet season the sun confesses defeat before entering into action and is not seen for days. "The vapours weep their burden to the ground" all day long and the mists store themselves up and reserve their energies for the next contest. But they are beaten eventually,

and one morning after several days' heavy rain the sun arises, chases the mists, and looks proudly upon a world that is swept and garnished. On mornings like this there is a keen feeling in the bright and sparkling air, very different from the heated languor of the later day. The distant aspects of Malaya, the blue hills and their mists, are very reminiscent of the English lake country and possibly also of other countries where rain is plenty and the hills are no great height.

As you hurry along, however interesting be the contrasts between the clear spaces of the rice-fields, the light groves of the coconut palms and the dim aisles of the rubber estates, you will probably not forget that it is near nine o'clock and you have not had breakfast. Even should you forget the Chinese attendant is there to remind you with his polite enquiry as to whether you are thinking of breakfasting this morning. On his enquiry you suddenly realise that you are very hungry, having had nothing since your *chota hazri* of the early morning. So you order breakfast and shortly after walk along to the restaurant car to procure it. By the time it is over the train will have crossed the Krian river, boundary between British and Malay territory,

Krian District. and you will be at Parit Buntar or beyond, in the Krian district. This wide stretch of flat land is given over almost entirely to rice cultivation, though sugar cane, coconuts, tapioca and rubber are also grown. But the dominant note in the scenery is rice. As this is a product which requires

annual preparation of the fields to receive it, you may witness it in different stages all through the year. From February to May the land lies fallow, covered with a rank growth of weeds and grass hiding the old stubble of the padi of the season before. On through the year from May until August the peasants are engaged in the fields, squatting about in the water, hacking up the weed-growths in a shower of muddy splashes, and reducing the view generally to an extremely ugly monotonous expanse of brown mud cut up into chequer squares by low long mounds of mixed mud and weeds which serve to keep the water on the land. The browner and the muddier it all is the more do the hearts of the peasants rejoice, for a good preparation of the fields means a heavy crop to be sold to the rice mills at Kuala Kurau. In August the "children of the padi," the young rice plants, are taken from their nurseries and planted out in the fields with the "goat's foot" tool and there they flourish so exceedingly, being sure of their water supply from the irrigation reservoir, that in a few days they, from a light straw colour when planted out, become first a delicate then a vivid green, a real green, a nursery box of paints green, not the green that may be blue. At this season the sky above them is an intense blue with a few white clouds sailing across a bright sun, and if you happen to cross Krian then you see it perhaps at its best. No man can look unmoved upon those vast sheets of grain, for they mean so much to brown humanity. Mounds and mountains of fair white rice for little pot-bellied Mat who stares at you,

naked and unashamed, with his finger in his mouth ; jewels of silver, jewels of gold and a great wedding for his elder sister Minah ; a mind unburdened of debt for the head of the household ; good food to be bought and cooked, and many a gossipy feast to be enjoyed, for the mother ; creature comfort in the way of tobacco to smoke and betel nut to chew for the old grandparents. Peace and plenty, peace and plenty—here are both in full measure, pressed down and overflowing. The brains which plan, the minds which carry out an irrigation scheme need never quail before the magnitude of the task, for sooner or later, that horn of plenty, the irrigation canal, will gush forth its waters upon the slime and ooze and peace and plenty will follow in their train.

The following lines by the Director of Public Works (Mr. R. O. N. Anderson), describe the principal methods of rice-growing :—

**Irrigation in
Malaya.**

“The staple food of the Orient-born inhabitants of Malaya is rice, corresponding to the Occident’s wheat. The country itself produces but a small portion of the total amount consumed in it. The greatest rice-growing area is that extending from Parit Buntar to Bagan Serai, Alor Pongsu and along the coast to Selinsing, in the north of the State of Perak, where large irrigation works have been successfully established. These depend partly upon rain, but in a poor season, when rain may not be plentiful, the water stored in the large reservoir crossed by the railway between Bagan Serai and Taiping comes to the assistance of the cultivation so

that whatever the season a crop is assured. A good rainy season here means a bumper crop, and a poor season will produce a good crop by the aid of water stored in the irrigation reservoir. This rice area is usually most beautiful in February, when the fields are white to harvest. The irrigation works alluded to are known as the Krian Irrigation Works and they are the first extensive works of the **British Methods**, kind constructed by Government in these States. The rivers which supply the necessary water are the Kurau river, crossed by the railway at Pondok Tanjong, and the Merah river which the railway crosses near Bukit Merah station. These two rivers unite about a mile below Bukit Merah station, and as their combined flow in July and August, when water is required for planting, is not sufficient for the 70,000 acres of padi land in the irrigation area, it was necessary to impound water during the rainy season. A favourable place for this purpose was found just above the junction of the rivers where a bank about 1,900 feet long, with a concrete weir in it about 660 feet long for discharging flood water, has been constructed between Bukit Merah and Bukit Berapit, thus forming a shallow reservoir of about 10 square miles, and impounding sufficient water to irrigate the whole area for a month. In big floods the long line of water falling over the spill weir is a sight worth seeing. The bank itself is a favourite resort of otters, and a number may often be seen there in the early morning, disporting themselves. Fish abound in the waters and are often seen

trying to jump the weir in the same way as salmon try to ascend the salmon leaps at home. The head sluices which control the water in the canal are in the Kurau river at Bukit Berapit, whence the canal, 58 feet wide at the bottom and 4 feet 6 inches deep, runs to Bagan Serai and thence to Jalan Bharu, where it splits into two branches, one supplying Tanjong Piandang and the other Bagan Tiang on the coast. Other branches go to Alor Pongsu and Selinsing, and there are about 200 miles of distributaries. Padi planting is the favourite occupation of the Malays, and is very suitable for their idiosyncracies. With an assured water supply there is little cause for anxiety about the crops, and there is no need of prolonged labour throughout the year. Their earnings are small from the small blocks of about 5 acres usually allotted to one family, but their wants are few and all the necessities of life are at hand. The distributing channels bring good drinking water, well stocked with fish, to their doors. Each house has usually a few coconut trees and banana trees around it and poultry are numerous, so that with a good crop of rice their wants are fully satisfied. Only one crop is taken in the year, and there is no need of labour between planting and reaping, except a little weeding, which is usually done by the women, so that the goodman of the house is able to pursue his favourite occupation of sitting on the top step of the ladder into his house smoking cigarettes and dreaming. The most arduous part of the padi planter's work is in July, when the fields are

cleared of weeds. At this time the nurseries are prepared and the seeds sown. The land is flooded with water to make clearing easy, and the weeds are cut with an implement with a handle about 2 feet long, with a heavy blade projecting at right angles to the handle. They are then collected and burnt and the land is ready for planting out the nurseries. No manure is used, and ploughing is not often done, and then only with a very primitive plough drawn by a water buffalo. Each family helps its neighbour and is in turn helped by them. The crop takes six months to mature, and reaping usually lasts from the end of January to the end of March. Crops are cut with a sickle, but sometimes only the ears of grain are cut, each one separately with a small knife carried in the palm of the hand.

Though the Krian irrigation scheme is **Malay Methods.** the only large scheme yet carried out by Government, there is a considerable acreage of land in the flat portions of the numerous valleys throughout the States planted with padi irrigated by channels constructed by the Malays themselves. They show great cleverness in locating these watercourses without the aid of any instrument. The water is usually led from a stream higher up the valley and contoured down the side of a hill, but sometimes it is brought from another watershed and it is remarkable how the people find the correct levels, apparently by intuition. It is usually necessary to construct a dam across the river, from which the water is taken, and in this work they are very expert. With no tools

but an axe and a parang they construct excellent weirs formed from logs, brushwood and stone which last many years and hold up water to a depth of 15 feet. A good specimen of such a dam may be seen close to Grit in Upper Perak, but there are many places where they exist. Water wheels are sometimes used for raising the water from a river below ground level, especially in Negri Sembilan. These wheels are built of bamboo with radial spokes of that material with short pieces of bamboo tubes set at an angle on the periphery of the wheel. As the wheel is revolved by the current of the river these tubes fill with water, and as each one comes to the top it empties itself into a bamboo or timber shute and is carried thence into the distributing channel. These wheels are, however, liable to be damaged in floods by drifting timber and are sometimes washed away, and as their efficiency is very small the amount of land one wheel will irrigate is also small.

In Krian. All the various races take part in cultivation. There are immense stretches of Malay rice fields, coconuts are grown by everyone, whilst the English and the Chinese grow sugar, tapioca and rubber. To buy a stick of sugar cane for a cent and eat it on the spot is an experience. The cane, a couple of inches thick, grows jointed every few inches; the joints are cut half through, snapped off and chewed one by one, after stripping off with a knife the outer bark. You probably have not teeth so strong and sound as the native who puts a joint of cane into his



KLEINGROTHE, *Photographer*

WHEEL RAISING WATER.



TUNING SUSU FROM KRIAN

mouth and rends off pieces to chew. So you divide the joint with a knife down the grain into several pieces of convenient size and chew them. The cool sweet juice has little taste of the sophisticated sugar which we know, the white lump or the brown soft, but has a slightly sub-acid flavour of its own. You need not be told not to swallow the chewed fibre of the cane, for you will certainly not feel the least inclination to do so. Most of the frequented roads in Malaya, and certainly all the town streets, are continually littered with the untidy refuse of the chewed cane, for it is a native sweetmeat in much repute.

Nearing Parit Buntar the eye picks up, sixty miles away from Penang, in the far Southern distance, Gunong Bubu (Mount Fishtrap) whose twin peaks, 5,434 feet high, are usually veiled in cloud. Here amidst his "far-folded mists and gleaming halls of morn" lived, so runs the Malay legend, a giant who when he would catch fish used to let down Mount Fishtrap into the Perak river and lift it up again filled with kicking fishes. The giant has never done this since the day (which for Malays is beginning to date everything) "the white man entered." Perhaps the British Residents have never given him a licence to fish and he has had perforce to subsist on upland fare. It seems a shame to explain away a legend, but the truth more probably is that the top of Mount Fishtrap overhangs "like an umbrella," as the local Malay will tell you, making it difficult to reach the top and worse to leave it. Hence it has been called Fishtrap,

such being the principle upon which so many of the ingenious Malay traps are constructed. On the very top of the highest peak of Gunong Bubu is a trigonometrical survey beacon.

**Irrigation
Reservoir.**

The last railway station in this great rice-growing district of Krian is Bukit Merah (red hill). Here the train passes through a small hill and runs across the irrigation reservoir. The train runs on a bank and on either hand are seen the gaunt shapes of dead trees, the primeval forest killed off by the water at its roots. In time they will all have fallen and either have been cut up for timber or left to rot in the water, for it is cheaper to leave them to be killed by the water's action than to cut them down. In the water there grows a kind of grass which seems to be spreading and perhaps it may be later necessary to cut it back lest it choke the reservoir. In this country some vegetable grows everywhere. If you cut down a tree others rush up in its place. If you clear off every living thing, yet in a week something will still be growing. If you cover the land with water, something will yet grow in that. The very cement laid down in a house will grow a green fungus if it gets a chance, as will your boots and your clothing if you do not wear them or air them frequently.

Krian Roads. The peninsular trunk road passes through Parit Buntar and Simpang

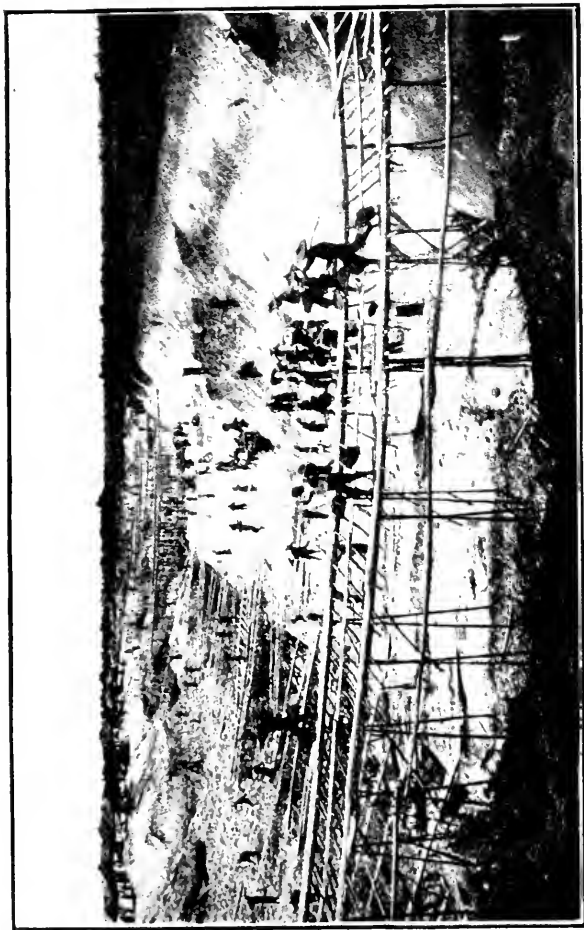
Lima to Bagan Serai, then crosses the Sungei Gedong, here tidal, but bridged, turns to the left at Simpang Ampat and emerges from the sea-

flats, of which the whole of Krian is composed, at the Gunong Semanggol pass. But besides this road there are others intersecting the country as branches of the main road, three of them straight to the coast on the west and another north-west to the little Malay village of Selama. As an alternative but much longer route to Taiping we can go by road from Bagan Serai to Selama and this for motorists is worth doing, for once Bagan Serai has been reached the stretch of main road between that place and Gunong Semanggol is much the same for scenery as the section between Parit Buntar and Bagan Serai.

The interest of the countryside fades somewhat on leaving the Krian district, whether by road through the Gunong Semanggol pass or by the railway, which leaves the Gunong Semanggol range on its west. But at this point you are at length under the shadow of the eternal hills, that great range of granite lying always to the east as you go down southwards through the Peninsula. Between Pondok Tanjong and Kamunting there is little to be seen, the population here being sparse owing to the fact that the conformation of the country is a succession of small hills, foothills of the main range, which have never proved an attractive locality as there are no great irrigable valleys, and no or very poor deposits of tin. At one time the Ulu Sepetang neighbourhood was thought to be rich in tin, silver, lead, copper and perhaps gold, but the deposits, if they exist, have never yet been successfully worked. It is noticeable, however, that here the

geological formation is rather unusual—a black shale cropping up through the granite.

Between Kamunting and Taiping there
Gugup. is a road running up the Gugup valley which is now very little used. But the valley is easy of access from Kamunting or Taiping by road or rail, and beautiful in spite of or because of the fact that it has been worked for tin for many years. On the small hills on the west of this road are the Chinese graveyards where the dead who mined the valley “have peace, for they rest from their labours” overlooking the scenes of their lives’ activities. Mining has never yet been allowed on the eastern hill-faces, so these are still jungle-covered, but the hill-foot has all been mined and has grown up again in patches of varied colour. Half-way along this road is a Malay shrine, the *Kramat To’ Bidan*, and a little beyond it a Chinese temple set on a hill. The Malay shrine, perched on a knoll, derives its sanctity from the tomb of a local saint to whom Malays pay their vows. In the general overturning of the valley around him the saint has been undisturbed, though his resting place is much lower down in the valley than the Chinese temple. This seems to have been placed on a spot which is clearly not likely to be stanniferous and was perhaps designedly so placed. It is well situated, its porch commanding a good view of the valley. This by-road runs into Taiping past the Convent and comes out at the gaol ; but unless with a motor one does not approach Taiping along this pretty valley, for the main road



KUINGROU, *Photographer*.
CHINESE OPEN-CAST TIN MINE NEAR KAMUNTING.

and the railway, running close together, go straight on from Kamunting to Taiping.

The town of Taiping (Chinese word—**Taiping.** everlasting peace) lies on the Larut alluvial mining field which first attracted the Chinese, and later served as the battle ground between opposing Chinese factions, until the arrival of the British. For nearly fifty years this field has been turned over and over by tin miners, till it is now a wilderness of dumps and ponds. With the possible exception of the centre of the town itself there is probably not a square yard which has not either been worked for tin or covered with over-burden. Even in the town itself mining is still, by special permission, going on, and were the cricket-field between the two clubs to be put up to auction as a mining block it would find ready purchasers. Large areas of the valley were until recently reckoned as exhausted, but the perserverance of the miners has at last proved what has been supposed for long, namely, that underneath the old surface workings is a deeper deposit. This is being dredged up.

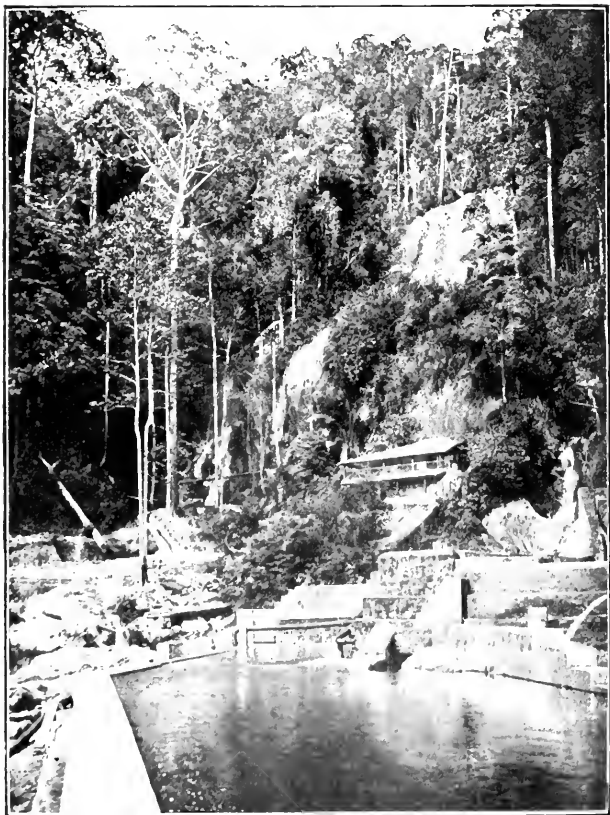
The town itself is one of the most pictureque in Malaya. Its public offices are handsome and contain a fine State Council Chamber. The road from the railway station, a quarter of a mile down which is the rest house, is the boundary between the native and the English parts of the town. To the north lies the English quarter. Arriving by motor from Penang one runs right through it, a little country city where houses dot a perpetual freshness of gardens. On

the south of Station Road is the Chinese town, with broader streets than those in most Malayan cities.

The streets are shaded by rows of the *angsen*a tree, which at irregular intervals burst forth into a riot of blossoms, even more yellow than those of the laburnum. These it rains down in golden snow upon the streets, providing a carpet fit for a Sultan, for yellow is the royal colour in the East. With its golden snow, the *angsen*a spreads abroad an almost overpowering scent, even more sweet than the smell of the *pinang* blossom. Most of the towns in Malaya have planted this *Pterocarpus Indicus* as shade tree, but in Taiping it has grown to a greater height than elsewhere.

The rainfall in Taiping is heavier than that elsewhere recorded in the Federated Malay States. The rain usually falls in the afternoon and arrangements involving exposure to probable rainstorms are best avoided. The mornings are generally light and sunny and also, owing to the effect of the heavy rains of the evenings upon the atmosphere, the early part of the day is cool.

The water supply comes from the hills which "stand up and take the morning" on the east of the town. Just above the filter-beds is a long waterfall, visible from the public gardens, and in wet weather a picturesque white splash on the green of the hill face. But the hills here are not always green. In the morning up to seven o'clock they are still in blue shadow, with a wreath of mist every now and then creeping across them, for the sun does not touch their western



KOENIGRODD, *Photographer.*

WATERFALL AND FILTER BEDS, TAIPING.

face when he first rises. Later in the day they appear in the true and actual colours of the trees which clothe them, changing therefore with the seasons of the year, now splashed with scarlet, now vivid with orange, but at all seasons showing the olive gray-green of the *serai* conspicuous amongst its darker brethren. Taiping lies close under the main range, and from its public gardens by the lake is seen the wonderful change of lights upon the mountains in the evening. The sun setting shines full upon them from the west and lights up each one of their millions of trees, so that each appears clear cut like part of some huge pattern of stamped velvet, in royal purple and apple-green, with every shade ranging between these two.

The social centre of the English quarter
Clubs. of a town in Malaya is always the recreation ground and the club overlooking it. It is difficult to think of any town or even village which does not possess its club, and to each one a thoughtful Government allows a fixed sum a year towards the purchase of newspapers. In Taiping are two clubs, the Perak Club on the west and the New Club on the east of the recreation ground. Anyone bringing introductions will find no difficulty in being received as a visiting member by any local club.

Beyond the Taiping recreation ground
Public Gardens. and behind the steep hill on which is the house of the Secretary to Resident lie the public gardens. These are perhaps the most beautiful of any gardens in the Federated

Malay States, but they are excelled of course by those older gardens of Singapore and Penang. They have over those of Kuala Lumpur the advantage that their lake is perfectly clear and limpid, unclouded by mud. The best view of them is from the Secretary to Resident's Hill. All round—

“The hills, like giants at a hunting, lie
Chin upon hand—”

Beneath you is spread a chain of lake and islands set with palms, bamboos and clumps of feathery trees. Round the lake runs a single dotted line of heavy dark colour which is a row of “rain” trees. Each tree is a table surface set upon a single pillared trunk. Beyond the lake lies a patch of rough jungle, left as a habitation for the wild creatures, the monkeys, pigeons, and water-birds, which find it a grateful refuge. Through these gardens, beginning on the glacis of the fort and magazine behind the New Club, run the nine-hole golf links circling between the Residency and the convict establishment.

Convict Establishment. This group of red buildings, contrasting with the white of the museum across the road, is enclosed in a regulation brick wall with glass at the top. Here are collected all the long-sentence prisoners from all the Federated Malay States, as ugly a set of ruffians as ever came from their own countries to commit crimes in other people's. If one goes over the gaol and passes down the two long lines in which the prisoners are ranged, the low brutality of the Chinese bad type is very apparent seen thus in the mass, though meeting the prisoners

individually afterwards one would not remark any departure from the Chinese usual type. The convict establishment is run upon the approved lines of modern treatment of prisoners, and unless a man is irreclaimably vicious and will work at nothing but stone-breaking, he has the opportunity to learn during a long confinement a trade to which he can turn on release.

**The British
Residency.**

Overlooking the gaol, on the hill above, is the British Residency, the modest building amongst its trees which does not by any outward appearance, except its flag, proclaim that here have lived the men who between 1875 and the present year of grace guided the development of the State of Perak and saw its revenue rise from the £77,614 of 1875 to to-day's £4,103,754. The Residencies in the Federated³ Malay States are no palaces, and if the ground floor of this one be paved with marble it is not by way of ostentation but of advertisement, for the marble is quarried at Ipoh and is gradually becoming known over the Far East as of high quality. Between the Residency and the hills lie the race-course and the rifle range and beyond them begins the path up the hills.

**Race-course,
Taiping.**

The race-course is one of the best in the Federated Malay States and the oldest. Originally it was on the other side of the town in the middle of the Larut mining field, but, like the original site of Taiping, it had to yield to the miner. Sir Hugh Low, British Resident of Perak, was wont to say that if the miners wished to

mine even the site of the Residency they were welcome to do so—on terms beneficial to the State. So the old race-course had to go in course of time and it was moved to its present site, which is old mining land supposed to be worked out, though no one can say with certainty that any land in this extraordinary valley has ever been really worked out. The continual re-mining of land supposed to be worked out is pointed to by the Chinese and Malays as a proof of their theory that tin breeds in the ground if you leave it alone. The matter-of-fact Englishman tells them that it does not, but as “men convinced against their will are of the same opinion still” they prefer to differ from him.

To people accustomed to the droughts of India and other parts of the East it comes as a welcome surprise to learn that Malay race-courses are always clothed with most excellent turf and it is not with hard but heavy going that turf clubs have to contend.

Rifle Range,
Taiping. Beyond the race-course is the rifle range. On this some very fine scores have been made. The range is in a quiet valley where the wind is seldom felt.

Larut Hill. There is a broad and good path starting just beyond the rifle range leading up the hills to the sanatorium at the top, four thousand feet up, three hours easy walking. This path passes through virgin jungle never touched by the hand of man, except where the trees have fallen or were like to fall on the path. It

is on this path that one is really deep in the jungle. Go fifty yards off the path and you are probably lost and can only recover it by happy chance, probably will not recover it, and most likely will be obliged, as several people have been obliged, to follow one of the numerous streams down the hill and emerge at the foot on to the plain with your clothes torn and your temper frayed. If you are of a nervous disposition it is certain that the effort to see ten yards and the continual failure to do so, the massing of the large tree trunks in your vision, so that they seem to be hustling you deliberately, the perpetual impediments put in your way by thorns and creepers, will bring you to a state of such hysterical apprehension that you will be very, very thankful indeed to burst the last embrace and stumble out into the commonplace world again. The jungle is an eerie place, always in twilight, full of strange sounds and smells, unfamiliar reptiles and insects, flitting ghostly little birds, raucous-tongued creatures always just round the next shoulder of hill, enormous boulders of rock strayed there by nature and left to weather away, little bubbling streams swelling to raging torrents in half-an-hour's rain. However much the modern traveller may long for a new sensation he is not advised to seek it in losing himself in the jungle; he will be wiser to keep to the path and content himself with noting the wonderful height of the trees, the length and thickness of the creepers and how, when one looks down hill over a break in the forest, there is seen spread out that soft carpet of tree tops dyed

in sunshine which is the happy playground of a multitude of birds, butterflies and, alas, even in this paradise, snakes. People who have long lived in the tropics are well aware that life moves upon the face of the jungle tops warmed by the sun and lashed by the rain, but it is only from a distance that they can see it move ; its creatures are free from man's idle curiosity, from his wanton interference, even from his reverent appreciation of their wonders. The tops of the jungles are the last places in which the butterfly, the bird and the plant can feel safe from the scientific or the casual observer.

There are at present seven bungalows on the hill tops, besides the Tea Gardens bungalow half way up. Roses, violets and many English vegetables are very successfully grown. Fine views of the rolling forest-clad uninhabited hills and of the river flats with their mines and cultivation can be seen from all points. The highest altitude is Gunong Hijau, 4,751 feet, to which runs a jungle path branching off from below the highest bungalow, the Chief Secretary's cottage. If this path is found to be clear it is worth while to follow it to the top of the hill, as this is the highest easterly hill on this part of the range and from it some idea can be gained of the country, still jungle covered, lying to the east. But the path is not in constant use and perhaps is better, for that reason, avoided. Very much the same view but from a lower altitude can be obtained from The Gap, a break in the hills below the site of the Cottage. The Taiping hills offer quite the best

opportunity of seeing, with a minimum of time and trouble, a part of the country which is not visible from the train or the roads; in walking or being carried in a chair up them one will see fine views of that soft and essentially feminine beauty peculiar to the untouched tropical jungle hills. It is, however, perfectly useless to ascend except in bright and settled weather and then only a morning ascent, starting not later than eight o'clock, should be attempted. It is but rarely during the year that the hills are not covered in the afternoon and in the evening with a thick mist which shuts out all views.

The firm of Taik^o Ho & Co., in Taiping, can provide chairs and coolies for people wishing to go up the hills. Permission to occupy the bungalows is granted by the Secretary to Resident, Taiping.

One of the sights of Taiping is the **Human Flotsam and Jetsam.** gardens of the hospital near the railway station. In these gardens is grouped a strange collection of human wreckage, for amongst its palms and shady groves are a pauper hospital, a lunatic asylum for men and another for women, a refuge for decrepits and blind men and a leper ward. Here is assembled the waste of the alien economic system, thrust out, past service, from the mines, the towns, the plantations, to be picked up, cared for and perhaps cured by the doctors. There are very few Malays in these institutions, for they at all times prefer to be ill in their own homes, and even Malay lunatics and lepers are to be found in the

kampongs. The Malay treatment of lunacy is what we call very old-fashioned and proceeds upon the same lines as did our old Bedlam hospitals in England not so very many years ago, for they confine the lunatic in stocks or tie him up with a chain, or else keep him perpetually confined in a sort of kennel underneath the house. It is these cases which are sought out by the District Officers and committed to the more tender mercies of the lunatic ward. Here they have a better chance of recovery, being well fed and properly exercised.

The Chinese lunatics come mostly from the cooly class. As unrelated individuals, the Chinese coolies find no one who cares for them enough to tend and feed them if they become lunatic, and so they are usually found by the police wandering about the streets or roads, and run in for being unable to give an account of themselves. A visit to the police court and the doctor follows, and finally the lunatic appears before the visitors of the lunatic asylum, who, if satisfied that the papers accompanying him contain the certificates demanded by law, commit him to the asylum till he recovers. Each asylum is regularly visited by a committee charged with the admission of lunatics and the dismissal of those who have grown sane.

Matang is a coast district lying between
Matang. the Larut plain and the mangrove belt.

To the village of the same name runs a road from Taiping which forks at Matang, the left hand fork going through the village to end at a



THE LARUT PLAIN AND ESTUARY
FROM THE HILLS.

mangrove creek, and the right hand going to Port Weld. This port is connected by a railway with Taiping, one of the earliest works of railway construction in the Peninsula. At the point where the road from Taiping reaches Matang is an old Malay fort with ruinous brick towers at the south-west and north-east corners.

In 1879, Matang Fort was described in a discussion by the State Council as having been built by the second Mentri Ngah Ibrahim, which would make the date of its building not earlier than 1857. It has, therefore, no archæological interest. Its human interest, however, lies in the fact that in 1876 it was used as a barrack for British troops engaged in the Perak expedition and as a court for the trial of the Maharaja Lela and others who had been guilty of or had instigated the murder of Mr. J. W. W. Birch, the first Resident of Perak. The Maharaja Lela was hanged in the precincts. Previous to this the place was rendered uninhabitable during the Chinese disturbances in Larut, so that Matang Fort has known its vicissitudes. It is now a training school for Malay teachers.

At one time purely a Malay district, Matang has now a fine sheet of rubber estates extending from just north of the Taiping-Port Weld railway line right away to Trong, twenty miles south.

This district and village of the same name remain very much as they were when British protection of Perak began, except that to-day it is administered by a Malay chief

Selama.

(whose father, by the way, was banished at the instance of Great Britain, in the early and troublous days of protection). He has taken the place of the British official formerly stationed there. The district is of no particular interest to the traveller, but from it to Taiping there is a road running through magnificent jungle scenery, still unspoiled. Near the village is a silver mine once worked by an English firm and now abandoned. The considerable Malay population in the Selama district lives some miles away from the village along a bridle path. Selama is one of those districts over which the English official delights to roam in the exercise of his duty, but the passing traveller will not see much of it for many years to come. It is, however, a fine tract of country, not too hilly, nor yet swampy, very well watered by four rivers and, if it were not so out of the way, it would long ago have been opened up, the soil being excellent. But it is remote from the centres of immigrant labour, and its Malays, like peasant proprietors elsewhere in the world, prefer to till their own lands to working for wages on other people's estates.

The railway and the trunk road from **Southward from Taiping.** Taiping to Kuala Kangsar run more or less parallel. The branch road from Changkat Jering Simpang Tiga for Bruas (Parit and Blanja) takes a deep bend to the south. Both railway and trunk road run through very beautiful scenery as soon as they emerge from the mining plain, as both do on passing the little wayside station of Ayer Kuning.

Both of them climb over the pass in the hills between Taiping and Kuala Kangsar, and at the very top the railway crosses the road. Though the views from the railway are beautiful and, owing to the greater altitude of the line as it climbs through the hills, are more extended, still the road probably offers scenery better, for until it begins to mount the pass it runs through rice fields, and through groves of coconut palms and fruit trees, one fair scene opening out as another is lost, in a perpetual variety of distance, light and features. The views from the railway are downwards over the country, and perhaps not so varied as those from the road. There is a large Malay population in the valley which stretches out from the pass, and every piece of ground is cultivated either with rice or with coconuts and fruit. The Malay habit when settling in a valley is to irrigate the low-lying centre by bringing water from the hill streams in artificial watercourses, and to plant orchards in the higher lands on the edge of the valley. If in the valley itself there happen to be a few islands of higher land which it is not possible to irrigate, these are used for houses standing in groves of trees. The people inhabiting this valley of Bukit Gantang were introduced from Petani about forty years ago, and their features and accent are still quite distinct from those of the native Perak Malays just over the pass in Kuala Kangsar. The Mantri of Larut brought them in to develop this part of his dominions, and himself dwelt amongst them. The ruins of his fort, consisting of a wall whose bricks

are being slowly disintegrated by weather and forced asunder by climbing plants and trees, is yet to be seen skirting the road from the Bukit Gantang police station to the railway. The wall had originally a cement facing, which is now peeling off and giving to the whole structure that air of extreme age and decrepitude which at once grows upon stonework in this land of damp moistures and greedy parasitic growths. The fort itself is perhaps little more than forty years old.

Bukit Gantang has always been a great place for tigers. On the night of March 19th, 1909, a tigress and two cubs walked along the railway line on to the platform of the little station and lay down under the ticket window of the booking office. In the morning the print of the folds of her skin was plainly visible on the dry, dusty earth, as also were the broad pugs made in the dust when she got up and marched out again with a cub on each side of her, the movements of all of them being clearly recorded on the ground. During the construction of the line several tigers were shot by the engineer in charge, but no difference in their numbers is noticeable, and a tiger's track along the line is still quite common. The stories about them are numerous. One of the latest is that a Malay was going along a path by himself when he heard a rustling behind him and looked round, to see a tiger emerging on to the path. He started to run and the tiger to run after him, as is the common habit of the cats, which will chase anything that moves, from a leaf to a man. As the man fled along

the path he passed a buffalo near a wallow. When the tiger got to the same point the buffalo lowered its horns to receive it. The tiger leapt aside and plunged into the buffalo's wallow—a round hole three or four feet deep, full of liquid fetid slime. The Malay, as he ran, looked over his shoulder and saw the discomfited tiger crawling out of the wallow, his beautiful coat fouled with evil smelling mud. When one remembers how particular cats are about their coats and how they resent liquid dirt of any kind, one hopes the tiger took his mud bath as a lesson against chasing harmless humans.

Sir Frank Swettenham's books contain many a tiger story and help to make us realise how very characteristic is the badge of the charging tiger which appears on the postage stamps, and, executed in colours, on the railway carriages.

Before reaching Bukit Gantang from Taiping by the road we pass the cross roads of Changkat Jering. The southerly fork of this takes us right away either to Ipoh by the south route through Parit (Blanja) or to Dindings (Pulau Pangkor).

The railway passes through several **Gunong Pondok** tunnels to climb to the top of the Bukit Gantang pass. As the train going southwards emerges from one of these and rattles over an iron bridge spanning a gully, there opens out the fine view of Gunong Pondok and the valley of the Perak river beyond it. The train does not stop for you to admire, but you get a glimpse.

That soft and distant aspect of the vale of Perak is denied to the traveller by road, for trees shut out the view, but at the top of the pass he sees cut out against the sky the huge and startling bulk of Pondok, and if he leaves the road, crosses the railway and climbs to the top of No. 3 tunnel up the red earth path visible from the road, he will, on a fine day, be rewarded with a splendid view. The line and the road run under the foot of Gunong Pondok, past the padi swamps, and beyond the padi rises that strange tree-clothed limestone rock, 2,000 feet high, dwarfing everything round it, thrusting out of the plain, amazing in variety of colours, for in places it is brilliant white of the brilliancy of marble, and in patches is red of the rustiness of iron. These limestone rocks are frequent all through the Peninsula. They are full of caves, and the caves of bats. They are also the peculiar refuge of the wild goat or serau (*Nemorhaedus sumatrensis*), the curious goat-antelope, a beast like nothing so much as the old pictures of the devil, black and shaggy, with horns, hoofs, and a leering salacious eye. Its haunts have been well described thus :

“Precipitous rocks and their accompanying caves it likes, but forest it must have, and the thicker and more tangled the better. A gloomy, damp ravine below a waterfall, the sides mere walls of rock, and the bed choked with rank vegetation is the place where its tracks are oftenest found.”

It is very seldom shot, but on the lower rocks of Gunong Pondok several were got in 1907 by a

planter who lived near the great rock, and thus had opportunities of studying their habits. The Malays call them *kambing grun*. To climb one of these limestone rocks is an adventure, and a dangerous adventure. But Gunong Pondok and the rock at the head of the Batu Kurau Valley, this being only a few hundred feet high, and the rocks near Ipoh and near Kuala Lumpur have been scaled. All such rocks are full of caves, some of them being pot-holes formed by débris and pebbles or gravel washing eternally round and round through ages in the drip and rush of the rain-water. This continual dripping has worn away the living limestone rock, but over the tops of such holes there grows a carpet of roots of trees and creepers, covered with leaves, thus forming most dangerous pit-falls. The large caves themselves often have openings to the sky at the top of the rock. Through these holes and through the openings at the ground level flit the innumerable swarms of bats. As you approach the caves in daylight you probably see but a few bats issuing and entering or, perhaps, none at all. But go close—if you can bear the stench—and shout or clap your hands or throw a stone to rattle in the caves, and immediately there rises a shrill screaming. All around and about the caves they fly, whirling, twisting, flickering, flapping, weaving patterns of flight like dry leaves in a whirlwind or the ghosts in Homer's Hades. Wherever the caves are found there, too, are bats innumerable, whether at Gunong Pondok, or the Ipoh caves, or the Batu caves near Kuala Lumpur. At all these places, too,

local Malays will have it that the men of long ago graven images from the solid rock which are still to be seen to-day. Alas for the disappointment of the archæologist! The caves are in reality as bare of sculpture by men of old as the rest of the country is void of antiquities, and the "statues" of the Malays turn out on inspection to be stalagmites only, very obviously formed by the drip from the rock, and bearing a resemblance to carvings only if viewed by the eye of faith.

Yet in one way the total absence in this country of antiquities, ruins, statues, carvings, inscriptions and the like is a gain. The men of old built in finer style, sculpted in truer line, carved in deeper cut, inscribed in designs more vast than the men of to-day, and in a country without archæological remains you are at least spared the hideous contrasts of other lands, where the railway station or factory of to-day, ugly, impermanent, brick, jostles the temple of long ago, imperishable, beautiful, stone. In Malaya there is nothing old but nature, and she, being the mother of all living, has taken kindly to her bosom the works of modern man, so that even a railway station set amongst its green and bosky trees may be a picture and, indeed, usually is.

Leaving Gunong Pondok on the left, whether we travel by road or railway, we pass through an outlying stretch of para rubber plantation, one of the oldest, if not actually quite the oldest of estates in Malaya planted by Englishmen. Above it, and on the west, on a clear day, may be descried a

clearing on the top of the hills in which is set the Hermitage, a house built by Government in early days and later sold when it had been decided to make a hill station above Taiping. With occasional glimpses of road from the railway, and of railway from the road, Kuala Kangsar town is reached.

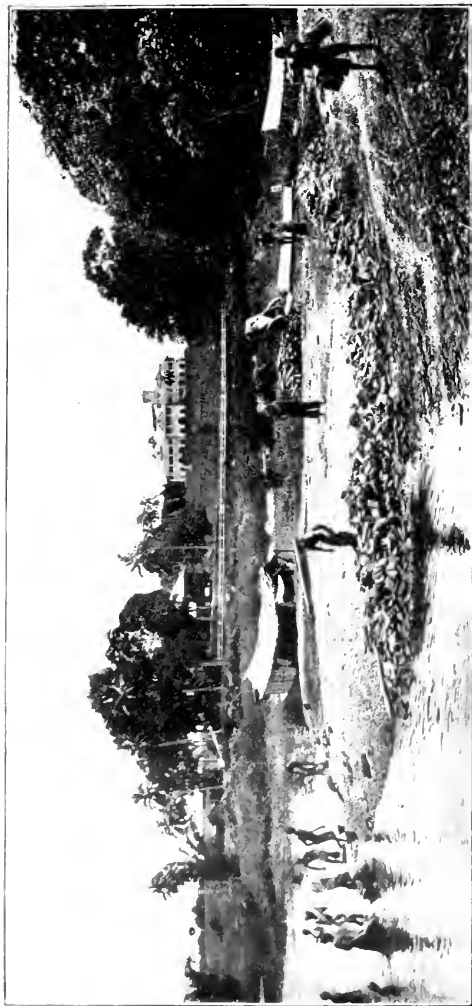
This was the seat of His late Highness **Kuala Kangsar.** the Sultan of Perak, Raja Sir Idris Mersid-al-Aazam Shah Ibni Al-marhum Iskandar Shah, G.C.M.G., G.C.V.O., the Malay Sultan, who began his career as Raja Idris, a cadet of the royal family, became a man of note before British protection, was Chief Justice for many years, and in 1889 came to the throne, and died universally regretted in 1915. A sincere Muhammadan yet no bigot, a real Malay yet well educated, the father of his people yet whole-heartedly and directly accepting, advising and supporting the British control of his country, Sultan Idris, as described by one who knew him very well, "stood for all that is best in the Malay ruling class." With the authority which in all Islamic societies attaches by the Prophet's law to the ruler, there combined in him a personal prestige based upon natural character and the wide influence derived from a long and prosperous reign. It has been to an extent not realised by foreigners due to his efforts that, in the short span of little over thirty years, his country of Perak and the Malay countries now federated with it have been lifted out of a condition not far removed from plain savagery. Him the Malays may thank for these incontestable facts that squalor has yielded to

prosperity, rapine and lust to order and equality of all men before the law, and that the life of the ordinary Malay, instead of being "nasty, brutish and short," is now happier and more truly free than that of any other race in the Peninsula.

**Council
Chamber,
Kuala Kangsar.**

The reigning Sultan had help from the British, from the Malays and from the Chinese in his Council of State, which has sat without interruption from the earliest days of British protection, sometimes at Taiping, more often at Kuala Kangsar in the modest wooden building still standing, and still used, overlooking the broad stream of the Perak river. Above it, on a high bluff, commanding a more stately outlook perhaps, more obvious, more modern, more imposing, rises the Perak residence of His Excellency the British High Commissioner for the Federated Malay States. The little Perak Council Chamber, built of wood, is in the very shadow of the great stone building above it. There is perhaps an allegory here, certainly there is an illustration of the Malay expression "beneath the shelter of the British power."

The town of Kuala Kangsar lies on the right bank of the Perak river, at the point where the Kangsar debouches. Low-lying, it is subject to floods at times when the Perak, swollen with the monstrous rains of an exceptional wet season, rises above its banks and laps the very roofs of the houses. Just below the High Commissioner's residence is a post showing the height to which the great floods have reached. On occasions like this the populace saves itself with goods



KEDAH. *Photographer.*

THE BRITISH HIGH COMMISSIONER'S RESIDENCE AND THE MALAY COUNCIL CHAMBER,
KUALA KANGSAR.

and chattels and live-stock in boats and retreats to the rising ground above the town. On this higher ground are the houses of the English officials, the Government offices, the Art School, well worth a visit, for silver and other pretty work is made there by Malays and is on sale, the mosque, the school and the three palaces of the Sultan.

Here at Kuala Kangsar is the first public school in Malaya based on the English model. Little Malay boys of the upper classes when they come to public school age go to Kuala Kangsar. Public school age in this country, however, begins much earlier than in England, and the youngest boys are so young as eight. Everything that can be thought of is being done here to run the Kuala Kangsar school on lines as closely as possible approximating to those of the great English public schools, and much progress has already been made. The school started on very modest lines in temporary buildings which it soon outgrew. Early in 1909 the permanent building was finished. This stands back from the road from the railway station and rises out of a fine playing ground, a brick-red and white colonnaded mass upon which the eye rests with pleasure. It contains class-rooms, dormitories and dining rooms, appears admirably adapted for its purpose, and is doubtless only one of the many fine buildings destined to be erected here in the near future, for the Malays of the ruling and the rich classes are taking to this style of education with eagerness and intelligence. Applications to admit boys are being received from

all parts of the Peninsula and admission to the school is a privilege greatly valued. Why? There are several answers possible. The Malays are a very acute people, and even if they were not it does not require any excessive intelligence to realise that the governing Englishman is what he is by virtue of the tradition he has received. The Malays think that their sons should be trained in the same fashion as the Englishmen they know have been. Another reason is that the Asiatic peoples now in tutelage are all striving to fit themselves for self-government. The Malays of the hereditary ruling class and of the upper classes are just realising that,

“Self-reverence, self-knowledge, self-control,

“These three alone lead life to sovereign power.”

For the elders this is too hard a saying, since until the white man came amongst them the ruling classes were like those of ancient Rome, *qui patrimonium alea, ganeo, pene laceraverunt*. But for their children they accept it, so the little Malay boys who have run wild and absolutely unchecked by even the slightest discipline in childhood are entered at Kuala Kangsar and there moulded into the Malay public schoolboy, whose type is already becoming fixed. Caught young like this—the school is beginning to accept small boys only—and trained from seven to seventeen in a discipline which though alien yet is exercised in their own country and sent home to the *kampung* for the holidays, the Malay school-boy at Kuala Kangsar is given the same opportunity as the young Indian princes at Ajmere and other colleges to learn, if he

will, from the Englishmen or, if he will, to refuse to learn. Some such system as this is imperative if the Malays are to join in the modern administration of their country to a greater extent than they now do. As things at present stand, a whole army of alien subordinates fill places which there are no Malays qualified to fill, both in business and official circles. In time there will be Malays ready for these places and the first to fill them will be boys from the Kuala Kangsar school. Indeed, many have already entered the service of the Government.

For very many years now the British Empire has said to its protected and subject peoples,

“*Si quid novisti rectius istis,*

“*Candidus imperti, si non, his utere mecum,*”

for very many years it has been our policy to extend to them the opportunity of learning our methods, our reasons, our objects. We keep nothing back. As we have received, so we teach. It may be that we have offered of our wisdom in the scorn of consequence; it may be that we have but sown the wind and shall reap the whirlwind; it may be that, when the result is seen and we are asked to account for its being a failure, we shall only be able to plead that we had the best intentions, that most futile of all pleas.

Whatever be the ultimate result, British policy has always tried to proceed upon education of the peoples governed and accordingly to the Malays we have offered education. Much of the education offered has been but perfunctorily accepted, possibly

because it did not profess to be that larger education which is not mere book-learning, but the bringing out of the good which lies in every character. At the Kuala Kangsar school education is of this latter kind. It is not at all impossible that it is for this very reason and perhaps for this reason almost alone that this public school policy at Kuala Kangsar has been so consistently supported by the Malays and by none more consistently than by their native rulers.

The Sultan has three palaces at Kuala Kangsar of which one is upkept by Government. They are built in stone and somewhat resemble French châteaux in the modern style. They are not show places nor kept open for the inspection of visitors.

Near Kuala Kangsar (along a good path, **Menggelunchor**, three miles, turning off from the 19th mile on the trunk road) is a spot in the jungle where a stream of water flows over a shelf of gently sloping rock into a pool. Someone with a genius for water picnics discovered this place years ago and ever since its discovery people have made up parties to picnic at the place and have a bathing party. The only proper way to enjoy this is to go from the main road along the path on elephants. Kuala Kangsar neighbourhood has plenty of elephants and it may be possible to arrange for one or for several to be collected at the road end of the path. Arriving there by motor we mount the elephants and start off in a long file up the path through the jungle. The humours of the way are many and if the picnic takes place in the fruit season you can pelt your

neighbour with the small wild fig and in turn be pelted by him all after the approved style of Malay picnics. Arrived at the bathing pool the members of the party change into bathing suits or, not being burdened with clothes to spoil, as one is in England, they plunge into the cool waters of the pool as they are. But the best part of the game is to mount to the top of the shelf of rock—being careful how you break your neck on the slippery surfaces—and there, using the flower sheaths of certain palms as a toboggan to sit upon, you launch yourself skilfully from the top and—well, you certainly arrive at the pool beneath, but whether in the attitude you assumed at starting is purely problematical. The old hands at this game slide gracefully down and drop into the pool in correct style. The novices usually start quite unexpectedly early and after a wild effort to recover dignity and balance find themselves whirling swiftly through space in attitudes unusual. Once started there is nothing to stop you and your arrival in the deep pool is assured. The game has all the points of tobogganing as far as the sliding goes, and splashing about in water being always enjoyable in Malaya you have that pleasure as well. It is a great deal better fun than shooting a chute in a boat for you are your own boat at this game and consequently realise the boat's sensations as well as your own. Nobody has ever discovered yet why people delight in getting to the top of some steep place and descending therefrom with exceeding swiftness and, as the Chinaman said, it is always a case of "whiz, walk a mile, whiz, walk

another mile ”; but shooting chutes is always fascinating and gives one that funny feeling in the inside which people love to cultivate. The Malay name of this exercise is *menggelunchor*, which is not to be found in the dictionary but is probably coined for the occasion. Weary at last of rushing down the slide and splashing into the pool, you are ready for tiffin. This can consist of nothing but a Malay curry and rice, anything else being disrespectful to the sport, which is, as far as Malaya knows, quite peculiar to the country. The elephants, which all this time have been waiting for us in a shady spot, doubtless surprised at our frivolous humour, kneel down for us again and solemnly return through the jungle to the main road, where we change into something less restful and more untrustworthy, and another delightful *menggelunchor* picnic is over until next time.

It would probably be difficult for travellers unacquainted with the country and the language to procure elephants, but they are not indispensable and the path is quite good. One counsel though you will perhaps, if you are a man, be glad to be given and that is that when bathing in public anywhere in Malaya you must wear something. To bathe naked is repugnant to the sense of decency of every race in the country. They all bathe a great deal and though some of them wear what can only be described as precious little, still, it is something. All tidal rivers, many upland rivers, and most deep ponds are dangerous to bathers as they may, and usually do,



MENGCELUNCHOR.

Sir E. L. B., photo.

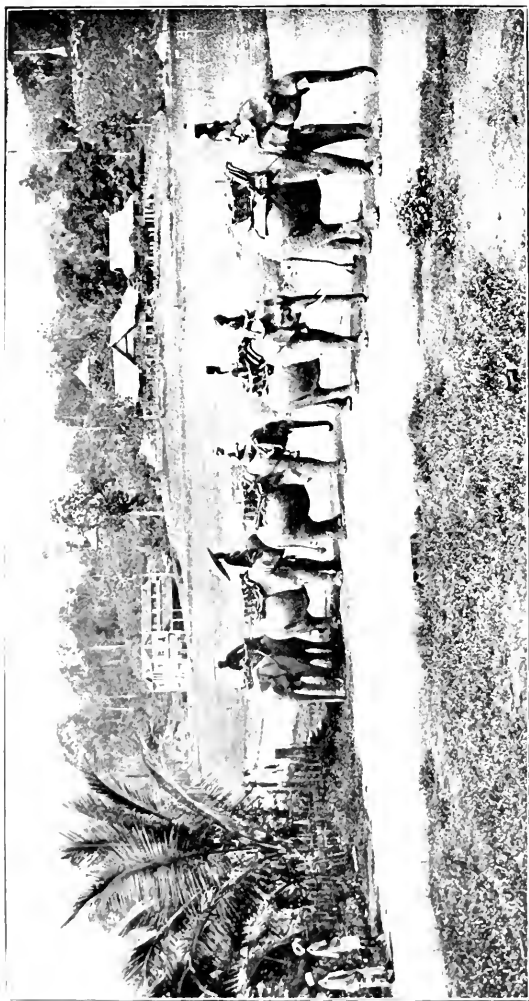
contain crocodiles, but this *menggelunchor* place is perfectly safe.

**Boat Journeys
on the Perak.**

The river Perak, running from away up in the backbone of the Peninsula, is tapped at several points by roads close to towns or villages, and is therefore easily accessible for a river trip, starting either from Grik or Lenggong or Kuala Kenering or Kuala Kangsar. The journey from Grik to Kuala Kenering or Lenggong to Kuala Kangsar is neither so comfortable nor so interesting as that from Kuala Kangsar to Teluk Anson, since it must be made, not in a houseboat but on a bamboo raft and through numerous rapids. The difficulty is, of course, the construction of a raft on the river at Kuala Kendrong, near Grik ; but supposing this overcome and your raft and crew awaiting you, what sort of a voyage may you expect ? Start, of course, in the early morning, and as early as may be, with the intention of making Kuala Kenering resthouse that night. The state of the river must be propitious, neither too high nor too low ; but one can take local advice about that before committing oneself to the mercies of the river spirits. Under your little tent of palm leaves in the middle of the four tiers of bamboos, which are the raft, you place yourself and your belongings and out she goes upon the stream, the Malay boatmen paddling or poling as the depths vary. In a moment the little party is solitary, drifting down an empty stream between high banks of jungle, jungle, jungle, silent save for a rare bird's whistle from the trees or a rarer

crash in the forest as some beast, you know not what, hears, offensively noisy to his ears, what you have thought was quiet talk on a deserted river. Deserted it seems to you, but nothing is more certain than that, through every yard of your course, some jungle-dweller's eye is on the strangers. Try landing at this pebbly stretch where there is known to be a hot spring. However cautiously you go you are sure to be heard, and, coming at last to this warm mudpool, you will see perhaps how the wild elephant has stood on the edge and dug heavy tusks into the bank above to dislodge the saline sand. But he has not waited for you. He and the tapir, the sambhur deer and the rhinoceros all take the waters, but not in your company. So back to the boat again, thankful that man does not realise what an outlaw from the animal world he is.

There are rapids and they have to be shot. One knows that. Rafts wreck on them sometimes. Not only does one know that but as like as not on the very first little rapid there are the remains of a wreck. That raft managed to wreck there because, when it tried to go through, the river was too low and what is to-day a little rapid was yesterday a long and difficult cataract. There are others, always long and difficult whatever the state of the stream, and when you see your boatmen preparing a sacrifice to the river spirits you may look out for something thrilling. Though it be not within the four corners of the faith of Islam to offer pagan sacrifices to old-fashioned gods upon whose worship Islam wages war, yet the



KEDUNGODU, *the panna*

ELEPHANTS CARRYING PANNIERS

elder gods have a way with them yet in Malaya and manage to secure rather more than their due share of reverence. However, no doubt the names of all the prophets of Islam, mixed up with those of all the spirits of pagandom, cancel each other out in the Malay mind, since charms so composed are in constant use. When the roar of a big rapid arrives and the boat slides towards it, and it grows inevitable and more inevitable each second, it is really a comfort to think that an offering, in the shape of a piece of fowl, was left on the last rock you passed before getting into the swirl. Though it be nothing but a heathenish oblation, it at least works by faith and certainly secures your Malays in the conviction that they have made the passage as safe as may be, a conviction which counts for a good deal in tight places where nerve and assurance are needed. As your craft shoots through you have no time to think all this and hardly any to note the skill which fends the raft off here and pushes it on there till, with a final gasping tilt, out you shoot into calm water and begin again the steady progress down the smooth stream. Before reaching Kuala Kenering you are a considerable judge of rapids and can size them up from a distance judging by the roar, the dip and the spray, but more practice than most people get is needed to recognise from afar or more likely remember those treacherous places where a rock hides under water when the stream is swollen.

The stage from Kuala Kenering, where you must spend a night unless you have a motor waiting there

for you, to Lenggong and that from Lenggong to Kuala Kangsar are much alike, and no doubt one can have too much of a river trip unless it is varied by occasional excursions on shore. That can be managed by doing a different trip, the one from Kuala Kangsar to Teluk Anson by houseboat. The only difficulty about this is that at present it is worth nobody's while to keep a houseboat for hire, but anyone wishing to make the trip and invoking the assistance of the District Officer at Kuala Kangsar will probably be enabled to overcome this. To give practical details—the cost of hiring a houseboat is uncertain and will have to be fixed by arrangement. Seven men of a crew, paid fifty cents (1s. 2d.) each a day, and one steersman are enough unless for a very large boat. Three or four days should be allowed for the trip to Teluk Anson, which will give time to land occasionally and, if it is the season (October to March), shoot snipe and teal. An ordinary boat carries two passengers, but if ladies are to go then a proper houseboat is essential, an open boat, though possible for men intent on shooting and so forth, being impossibly uncomfortable for a lady. Supposing that you are shooting, the usual stages are Parit, Bota and Pulau Tiga. Bathing is safe all through the non-tidal reaches if the deeper holes are avoided. People have been taken by crocodiles even above Kuala Kangsar, but very rarely. However, one cannot too carefully remember that the crocodile inhabits all Malayan rivers. The advice of the Malay boatmen on this point is always valuable and probably safe to



ON THE PERAK RIVER NEAR BLANJA FERRY

Sir E. L. B., photo.

follow. The current is so rapid that you cannot swim against it except in some backwater so that unless you swim down stream, with a boat following, bathing means practically paddling about and diving around the boat. The best bathing costume is a pair of khaki linen trousers cut short. All food and drink should be taken from Kuala Kangsar, as nothing can be bought en route except fowls, fruit and rice. If a houseboat is engaged the trip is quite possible for ladies. The question of advances of wages and hire of boat has to be settled by an arrangement, but you may expect to be asked for an advance, and it is usual to give a few dollars to enable the crew to buy food before they start. Unless the water is abnormally low or abnormally swollen, the journey can be undertaken in any state of the river. A houseboat disturbs the fish so that it is hardly worth while to take a rod. Much more fun is to be had by seeing that the Malays bring a casting net with them. Though you will throw it unhandily at first, yet if you are persistent and do not mind getting wet you will find it very amusing. At night it is usual to anchor in mid-stream, for there is no steamer traffic, so as to catch the breeze and avoid the attentions of sandflies and mosquitoes. In the season the shooting is excellent. You will want Nos. 8 (or 7) and 5 and also buckshot. In tidal waters anyone who is fond of filling crocodiles with lead should take a rifle. The river banks are inhabited most of the way and it is in the rice fields that the snipe are to be found. Teal are found in the rushy water holes

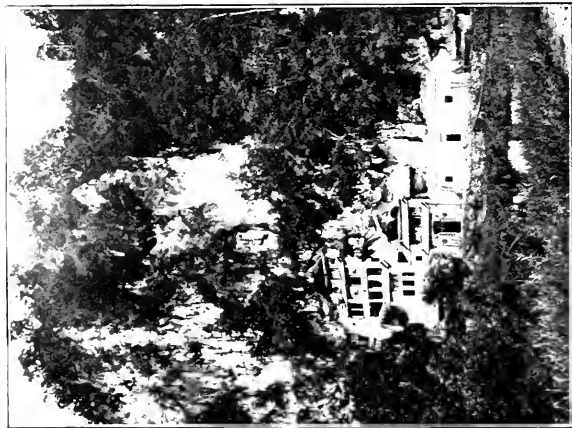
away from the river. It is on the Perak that the Sultan institutes turtle egg hunting parties.

Arrived at Teluk Anson you are again on the railway and at a port, and so can, if you choose, make for Singapore or Penang by sea, but you are hardly half way down the Peninsula and your best route is from Teluk Anson by rail to Batu Gajah, a pretty little residential village, headquarters of the Kinta district, or to the town of Ipoh.

This town has grown up in the centre of the Kinta valley on the tin industry.

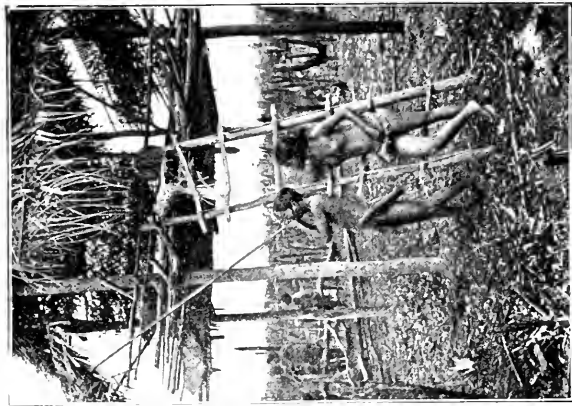
Ipoh. The valley is practically one huge tin mine, and Ipoh is a rapidly rising centre. It lies on both sides of a river, a modern commercial town, of great interest to any one interested in mining methods or investment in mines. It forms an excellent half-way house between Penang and Kuala Lumpur, and all kinds of mines may be seen working side by side, from the Chinese coolie in the open with his long-handled hoe up through an elaborate gradation to the most European style of electrically operated machinery working underground.

A very interesting landmark in Ipoh is the Birch Memorial, a clock tower erected by the citizens in memory of the late J. W. W. Birch, first Resident of Perak. This is a square decorated tower with a portrait bust and four panels illustrative of the growth of civilisation. The finest limestone scenery in the Peninsula lies round Ipoh. The Chinese rock temples at Gunong Rapat and Sungei Raia are well worth a visit. The town itself, with its fine market



KLEINGROTH, *Photographer*.

CHINESE TEMPLE IPOH LIMESTONE CAVES.



KLEINGROTH, *Photographer*.

ABORIGINES (SAKAI), WITH BLOWPIPE

and abattoirs ; its people's park ; its recreation ground, where are held every year athletic games ; its fine shop buildings and general air of active prosperity, is a good, probably the best, instance of what can be done in Malaya in creating a healthy well-planned town. For climate Ipoh is unsurpassed. It is dry and its air consequently more invigorating than that of any other town.

Of such a vast subject it is hard to say

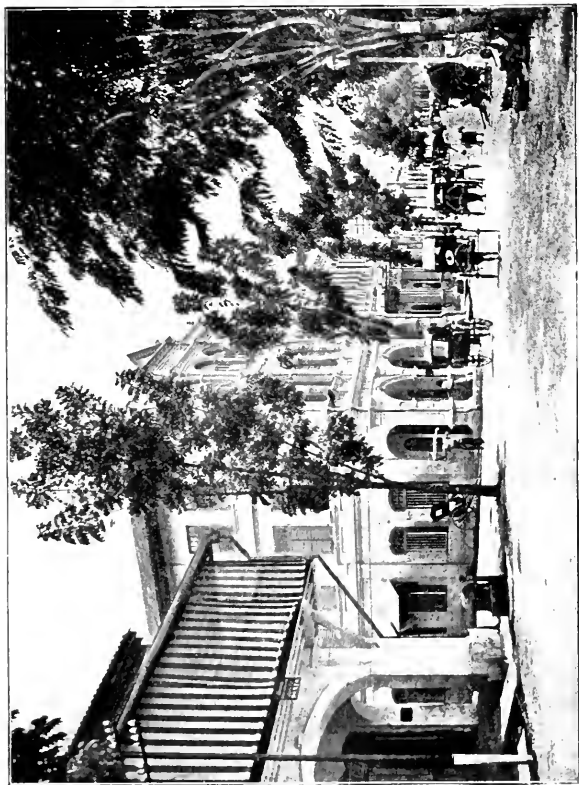
Tin Mining. much of interest in a short compass.

But perhaps a statement of how the most usual type of tin-mine in Malaya is started and is worked can be given in a few words. More detailed information is given elsewhere. In all Malay countries the soil belongs absolutely to the Ruler of the State. Consequently any person desiring to mine must first of all present a written application to the Collector of Land Revenue, describing with reasonable certainty where he desires to mine. As so much of the country is already surveyed and either leased for mining or granted for agriculture, it is usual to hand in with the application a sketch map showing the particular piece of land for which application is made. The Collector's reply may be one of three, for the application may be refused, or the applicant may be told that a mining lease for the land will be sold by public auction, or he may be told that his application is approved and that a mining lease will issue to him, in which latter case he will also be told what premium the State demands of him for the lease. Premium varies a great deal, but probably the majority of mining

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land now leased has been leased at ten dollars (£1 3s. 4d.) the acre. The applicant must deposit this premium, the annual rent, one dollar (2s. 4d.) an acre, and the survey fees according to fixed scale before the Collector orders survey of the land and issue of the lease. When the lease issues the lessee is free at once to mine. We will suppose that he is a Chinese, as the great majority of miners are. He either sublets the land to a man who has a good labour force, or if he has himself a force of coolies he puts them on to the mine. Most of the mines are alluvial, that is to say the black tin sand is found at varying but usually shallow depths below the surface of the soil, and is dug out by spade-labour.

The miner runs up a long shed, thatched, both walls and roof, with the local *nipah* palm leaf, having a rammed earth floor, raised platforms of wood for the coolies' mat beds with their mosquito nets, and a kitchen range in dried clay. His coolies occupy this *kongsi* and labour on the mine from early morn till dewy eve, digging away with hoes and implements of all kinds as soon as they have felled any jungle or undergrowth there may have been on the land. Tin-mining in Malaya is just as much of a gamble as mining anywhere else. It may be that a few weeks' or even a few days' work will reveal wealth beyond the dreams of avarice, or it may be that the miner will daily see his coolies eating up his capital and finding nothing to replace it or add to it. To a Chinese this is peculiarly galling, for by a twist of the reason which is foreign to a European a Chinese



KIEINGROUHE, *Photographer.*

STATION ROAD, IPOH

will tell you, "I lost fifty thousand dollars over that mine," by which he means that he lost ten thousand dollars cash and forty thousand prospective, total fifty thousand. As the tin ore is lifted from the paddock (we are speaking of an open-cast mine, not of an underground mine) it is conveyed to the thatched *kongsi*, and there washed by repeated rakings over in a stream of water. The resultant tin-bearing sand containing seventy per cent. of tin is then put into bags holding just as much as a man can carry, one at each end of a carrying stick slung on a Chinese cooly's shoulders. The bags are stored in the *kongsi* until such time as there is a considerable accumulation, when they are carried to the nearest road, loaded in a bullock cart, and despatched either direct to a buyer in the nearest town or else railed to some more distant buyer who will give a better price. The buyer sells to the smelter and the smelter ships. Most of the smelting is done in Singapore or Penang, and the rest in Malay territory.

There is an engaging simplicity about this method of digging and winning tin ore, and it is a method which has done very well for many years. Nowadays there is a considerable movement for European machinery, steam power, electric power, grabs, travelling baskets on wires, hoists, hydraulicing, dredging, and many other Occidental methods of mining. Some have been successful with these modern methods so largely employed by the European capital now invested in the country, but the old-fashioned method is still pursued by that essentially old-fashioned person the

Chinese, and he seems to be quite satisfied with it still. As you pass through the country you see him industriously turning up new mines, digging over old mines, sometimes working in great crowds of men, sometimes as a few fossickers with a very simple outfit, and wherever you turn, except in purely agricultural districts, you see either a new mine just opening, a mine in full work, or the remains of a mine, for there are very few places to which the Chinese have not penetrated.

The Malays, aware apparently that he who heapeth up riches cannot tell who shall gather them, do not and never have taken much interest in mining, unless it be to act as prospectors. Of prospecting a great deal has been done by Malays, burrowing under rocks in remote and jungly places whose positions are a matter of family tradition perhaps. But to sweat all day in the sun with some one else's hoe in some one else's mine merely to make money is not a pursuit which is likely to appeal to the comfortably situated Malay race, for whose simple wants an ample provision is made by not very strenuous exertions in the ancestral rice swamp or family orchard. *Natura daedala rerum* gives them all they want with a bounteous hand, and they never yet have engaged in tin-mining. Yet it is the modern mainstay of their country and on it rests the whole administration. Agriculture has latterly grown enormously, but agriculture in Malaya is still the younger and mining the elder sister.

Roughly, 40 per cent. of the world's supply of tin

comes from the Federated Malay States. "Imagination boggles at the thought" that from this little more than twenty-five thousand square miles of country, two-thirds of which are unexplored or unworked, there should be won in a year tin worth £12,244,000. An opulent figure, is it not? On all this wealth an export duty is paid to the Government, and it is primarily the revenue so derived which has made the country the wealthy land it now is, and will yet make it wealthier. Its surplus assets are already over £12,654,588.

**The Native
Theatres.**

The Asiatic inhabitants of Ipoh, having had a large share in the development of the Kinta valley, can afford to enjoy themselves, and accordingly it is in Ipoh that one finds a very flourishing Asiatic drama.

The Chinese stage their own plays. So do the Tamils. But the Malays cultivate an exotic theatre so unconsciously funny that it is well worth seeing. To watch "Hamlet" played with all the accessories of the Malay heroic drama and all its peculiar conventions is for the European one of the most laughable experiences. Everybody has his own idea of how "Hamlet" ought to be played, and whatever it be, it certainly is not the idea presented by Malay actors. "Ali Baba and the Forty Thieves" is another favourite piece, and this allows more scope for the clownish element. Malays are excellent mimics, and a Malay clown playing a Chinese cooly hits him off to the life. The imperfect acquaintance with Malay

words, the Chinese accent, the Chinese gestures, are all presented, and the smile which goes round the Chinese part of the audience is proof enough that the clown has showed them their little peculiarities. The traveller, unless undeceived, will certainly believe that the actor is Chinese. Another favourite play is "East Lynne," but there is no end to the incongruous medley which a Malay *bangsawan* troupe will produce.

The Chinese theatre, like most things Chinese, is the same as it was in China a thousand years ago and will be a thousand years hence. The Chinese have not much taste for variety, and they carry their theatre with them all over the world, unchanged from what it has always been. It is like nothing European, and always merits a visit.

It is quite possible, in any considerable town, to see Malay, Chinese and even Tamil plays in the same evening, for one visits a native theatre as one visits a music hall, just to see what may be on, rather than to sit out the development of a play.

On the slopes of Gunong Kerbau
The (Mount Buffalo), the blue mountain
Aborigines. 7,180 feet high which broods on the
East over all the Kinta district, is a settlement of
Sakei, unspoiled aboriginal children of the jungle,
scarce visited save by some Forest Officer, looking
down from their eyries upon the busy plain below
them. Tall, well-developed people, lighter in colour
than their cousins on the lower slopes of the hills,

they are far beyond the reach of travellers. As you fuss about the neighbourhood of Ipoh in your motor, or clang down the Peninsula in the train, little you reckon of people living amongst those silent spaces in an eternal calm of thought. They never cultivate nerves, or boredom, or the desire for change, or the wish to see new places, or a hankering to enlarge their minds, or an impulse to get rid of too much money, or to accumulate more by making a hole in the ground. They cultivate their gardens high up on those dim slopes and are still happy. Amongst the people who dwell on the plain they had a friend, and if you wish to learn more about the Sakei and their way of life, you should read the late Captain Cerruti's "My Friends the Savages." It is the only book on the aborigines of the Malay Peninsula written by one who lived for years amongst them, and though at times the author tends towards a certain flamboyance of expression, he has caught and left upon the printed page the true atmosphere of the jungle.

Pahang. The State of Pahang, with an area of about 14,000 square miles, has a population of about 100,000 people. A simple arithmetical calculation will show that there are a little over seven persons to the square mile. Those who are accustomed to be jostled by some three hundred and forty-nine other people on the square miles of Great Britain, will feel lonely in Pahang. About 250 miles of road, 200 of path and 96 miles of railway, are, like the population, somewhat lost in 14,000 square miles of country. These

statements will hardly commend Pahang to the traveller who has three other States from which to choose, where he knows his comfort will be more studied, his journeys more easily made, and his general impressions more pleasant, nor is it intended that they should. For indeed, except for wildness of jungle scenery along the road which climbs the hills from Kuala Kubu to Kuala Lipis and the charm of river scenery along the Pahang river from Kuala Lipis to Pekan, there is little enough to be seen in Pahang, unless it is intended to enter her forests in pursuit of the big game which roams there unmolested. The town of Kuala Lipis, on a river which lower down joins the Pahang river, is the official capital and has no other claim to interest. The Malay capital, at which H.H. the Sultan resides, is at Pekan on the mouth of the Pahang river, on the east coast of the Peninsula. Pekan is a port at which steamers from Singapore call, but during the prevalence of the monsoon their visits are irregular, for a heavy sea gets up on the bar of the river, making navigation difficult and often dangerous. To Kuantan runs a road, which branches off from the Kuala Lipis - Kuala Kubu road at Benta.

The most usual and easy entrance to the State of Pahang is from Kuala Kubu in Selangor, from which place motors run to the capital, Kuala Lipis. By leaving Kuala Lipis by river, going to Pekan by boat and there taking steamer to Singapore one can go right across the Peninsula. The journey is all the way through the wildest jungle, varied very

occasionally by spots of cultivation where a few Malays have settled and it is not recommended except for people who desire to feel themselves for a time absolutely cut off from communication with the world. It should be possible to make the trip from Kuala Kubu to Pekan in a week, supposing that all arrangements duly dovetail, that a houseboat, properly provisioned for self and crew, is ready to start from Kuala Lipis, that it floats down river safely and that a steamer happens to be at Pekan about to sail for Singapore. Wild and romantic as such an expedition may be, its details take so much arranging and it is, except by Government officials with special facilities, so seldom done, that it may be regarded as outside the view of most travellers for pleasure. There it is, however, waiting to be done, and to people who have plenty of leisure and good temper its prospect may sound inviting. After all its difficulties are chiefly mechanical, and it has no dangers if the river be not in unusual flood or unusual drought. At Kuala Lipis is a comfortable resthouse where one may remain so long as is necessary to be perfectly sure that the houseboat, the crew, the servants and the stores aboard are all in good order and condition before starting. For the descent to Pekan, like that to Avernus, is easy, but, having once started, there is no retreat, since it takes three times as long to come up the stream as to go down, and there is no road through the jungle following the course of the river, though the Bentakuala Kuantan road crosses the river some two

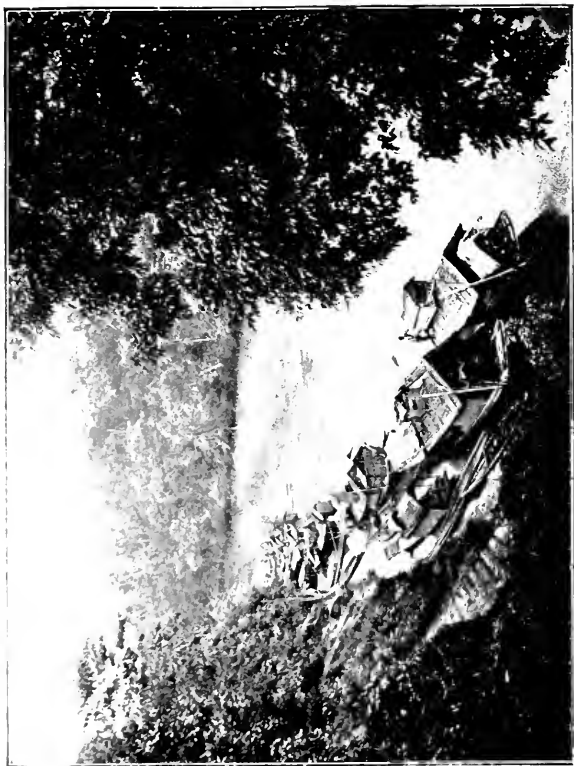
days' boat journey below Kuala Lipis. Over the 129 miles between Kuala Krau and Pekan, a railway launch plies. A glance at the map reveals the nakedness of the land of Pahang as compared with the Western States, and it will be many a long day yet before its vast forests are felled by the miner and the planter, and its rivers frequented by steam traffic, but its solitudes are already invaded by railway engines. Meanwhile it is unlikely that Pahang will prove of interest to any traveller who is not a sportsman definitely in search of big game.

**Southwards
from Ipoh.**

Unless it is proposed to go over the pass from Kuala Kubu to Pahang, most people go direct from Ipoh to Kuala Lumpur, for there is little of interest between the two points. True, the railway to Teluk Anson branches off from the main line at Tapah Road and from the same station motor cars run to Tapah, but Teluk Anson is simply a small river port and Tapah a country village, neither of them on any through route.

**Lower Perak
District.**

They are thus away from the main stream of travellers and seldom visited unless by people who have business to do. But the whole district of Lower Perak surrounding Teluk Anson is a magnificent planting district, a planting district which has not all its eggs in the rubber basket, and is not dependent on the English planter alone, for immigrant Malays, chiefly Javanese, have planted thousands of acres of coconuts, which thrive along the coast line. Anyone interested in



KUTINGROH, *Photographes*.

MALAY HOUSEBOATS ON PAHANG RIVER AT KUALA LIPIS.

tropical agriculture will probably find the Lower Perak district a valuable study, for its hospitable soil welcomes both *Hevea Braziliensis* and *Cocos Nucifera* equally.

Between Tapah Road and Tanjong
Tapah Road to Malim the railway and road run through
Tanjong Malim. jungle and this is the first section on the line where the obsession of the forest begins to weigh upon the mind. Tree after tree flits past bringing no individuality with it. Creepers flash into flaming flower here and there. Wearied by the perpetually passing bank of greenery and shadows you try to project the mind through the gaps where the eye will not serve you. In those vast blacknesses, virgin, given over since time was young to the huge creatures, elephant and rhinoceros, who live by stuffing themselves all day long with quickly digested vegetable food, you creep about in fancy, the size of Alice when she first bit the diminishing side of the biscuit, or peek a long neck up through the trunks to the tree tops, a neck, like Alice's, to startle the wood-pigeon. How would you fare if dropped into those inhospitable solitudes? An unhappy thought, perhaps, and it is time to turn to the east side of the line and wait for the clearer alleyways made by the Forest Department in the great
Trolak Forest Trolak reserve which bounds the rail-
Reserve. way half way to Tanjong Malim. This reserve, marked out by posts for the edification of the Chinese timber stealer or Malay gutta thief, is full of *getah talan* trees, which produce the gutta-percha of

commerce. It is said, and probably with complete truth, that in the more than 25,000 square miles of the Federation there does not exist one full grown tree of this species, so thorough was the searching for it by Malay and Dyak gutta collectors in the past. Their method was, and is, for they still raid the forests in Pahang, to cut down the tree to get the gutta out of it, and they show that absolute heedlessness and total lack of prescience so usual with the man who wants to get rich quick. Acting on the idea, "why should we consider posterity? Posterity has done nothing for us," they wandered through the forests, cutting down gutta trees without scruple, careless of the future so long as they secured the profits of the present. To them is due the fact that even the seeds of the trees are nowadays hard to come by, and had there been then invented any process for extracting with commercial success the gutta from the leaves and branches they would have dug up by the roots every tree in the country. But happily for the persecuted *palaquium* a heavy hand began at last to make itself felt even in the forest, and to-day all the places known to contain gutta trees are set apart as reserves. Trolak is one of these and here the choking undergrowth is kept cut back, so that the gutta trees have a better chance. This tree, with its shiny green long leaf, showing old gold colour on the underside when ruffled in a wind, is one of the most beautiful in the jungle. Here long aisles of infinite distance stretch through the forest, lit by chequer flecks of light, "pattens of fine gold" let down by the sun through chinks in the jungle ceiling.

The ravening and rioting struggle for life of the creepers, the bushes and the young giants of trees is here restrained and the hand of man, so seldom an improver on nature, has granted us relief from the oppression of the unpruned forest. Yet even so it is an optical and mental rest to reach Tanjong Malim, and after tea there to rattle across its pretty Bernam river into the more open country of the State of Selangor.

**The State of
Selangor.**

In the short distance between Tanjong Malim and Kuala Lumpur there is a remarkable variety of scenery, bamboo jungle, sprung up where the virgin forest has been cut down, abandoned mining land, existing open-cast mines, hydraulic mines shooting water at red hillsides, rubber estates at all stages of cultivation, occasional Malay kampongs, little brick-built towns, each with its railway station. The prettiest of these

Kuala Kubu. latter is Kuala Kubu, lying in a cup of the hills on the bank of a little river, which later develops into the Sungei Selangor, with its wide mouth at Kuala Selangor, on the west coast. From this river the whole State takes its name, Bugis Malays having settled at Kuala Selangor at the beginning of the 18th century and gradually asserted a precarious dominion over the whole of what is now known as the State of Selangor.

The area of this State being only some 3,200 square miles, about half that of Perak, it follows that its activities are all close together, and town succeeds town along the line of the road and of the railway

with a greater frequency than in Perak. But they are all mining towns and will not delay the sightseeing traveller whose train glides into Kuala Lumpur at dusk. As if for his special benefit a tropical sunset is lighting up the Government offices, making them look like part of a "rose-red city half as old as time." Though they be not half as old as time, and lay claim to about twenty years of existence, they are certainly the most successful building in the Malay Peninsula.

In 1872 the Capitan China paid cash
Kuala Lumpur. down for the heads of his enemies in
the market place of the two-streeted
Chinese town of Kuala Lumpur. To-day it is a
garden city, the administrative capital of the Federated
Malay States, a busy town full of varied races, and
the kind of place where you can spend a few
weeks very pleasantly indeed. Its population is over
66,000.

Kuala Lumpur has always been one of the principal towns of the Malay States since they possessed such things, but its importance has grown very much since the federating of the four States in 1896, when it became the administrative capital. This added to its public buildings and to its English population. When, a few years later, the wonderful possibilities of rubber growing were realised and coffee estates, both near the town itself and in the Klang district, were planted with rubber, the sudden large interest in this form of cultivation, and the consequent increase in the European population of the State of Selangor, gave an impetus to Kuala Lumpur. The site is almost ideal



KIFENGROH, *Photographer*

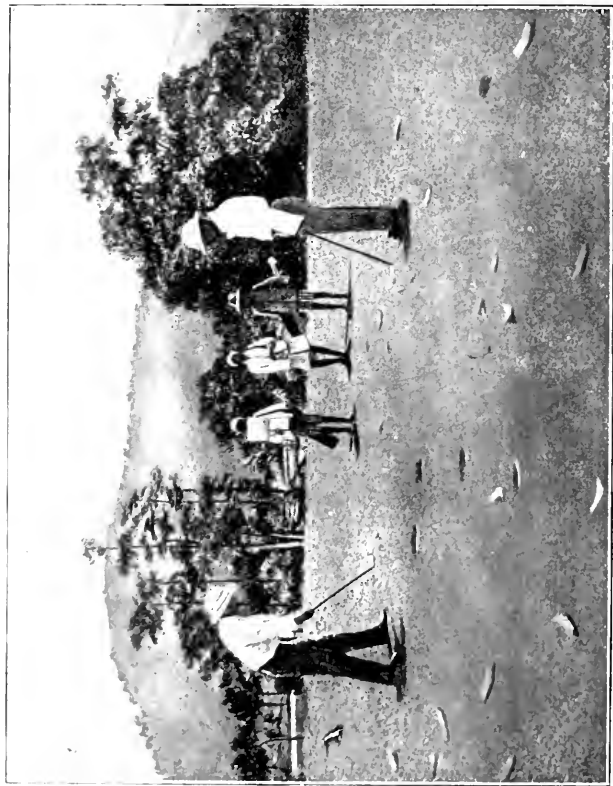
GOVERNMENT OFFICES, KUALA LUMPUR.

for a town in Malaya. Through the midst of it runs a river which carries off the heaviest rainfalls in a few hours, and on either side of the river the ground is flat for some distance, thus providing building sites for shops and houses on the east, or native side, and space for a fine recreation ground and numerous public buildings on the west, or English, quarter. As the Chinese, who form the majority of the trading and shopkeeping population, prefer the rabbit warren to the garden city system of housing, they are easily accommodated on the flats near the river, whilst the European inhabitants occupy the white bungalows, each in its garden, which dot both the hills on the west and the rising ground on the east beyond the native town. Long-vanished tapioca plantations, tin mining and wood-cutting, unregulated until of recent years, have accounted for the disappearance of the jungle close to Kuala Lumpur, and in consequence of this and also from the fact that most of the English quarter lies on the hills it is a cheerful town, basking in the sun of a morning and soon shaking off the rainstorms of the afternoons. Since a time when the memory of man runneth not to the contrary it has been still unvexed by earthquakes, typhoons, cyclones, or the "dreadful spout, which shipmen do the hurricano call"; it knows neither simoom nor serious drought; it apprehends neither prairie fires nor tidal waves; it has no "hot weather" season and no cold, damp, drizzling weather; and it does not require the European and the Asiatic to live side by side. To these negatively

expressed advantages may be added the positives that it is lit by electric light, is within twelve hours by rail of Singapore, possesses an excellent race-course, a golf course, a polo ground, two clubs, hotels, very beautiful public gardens, cricket and football grounds, fine roads, good shops, English society and a cool climate. In fine, it has the town advantages of the big cities like Penang and Singapore, without their disadvantages in the way of jostling crowds, dust, heat, noise, smells and turmoil generally. Both in Penang and Singapore the impression always present is that you can get nowhere beautiful or quiet without driving through some mean street or other. This one does not mind when passing through, and indeed it often strikes the traveller as entertaining, but it is a form of entertainment which rapidly palls on the taste even of the traveller, let alone the more fastidious taste of the sojourner. If it were less than its twenty-four days from England people would go to winter in Kuala Lumpur. As it is, many people, usually relatives of those whose business stations them there, spend month after month lingering in it, doing, with complete satisfaction, nothing in particular in a strange land, or at least nothing which they could not do in England. Tennis is played a good deal. You play that in England, but played in Malaya it is different somehow. For instance, the balls are retrieved by Tamil or Malay, or possibly Chinese children, who field for hours for a few cents to spend in cakes. But the climate is very hard on the

rackets. Golf you play too, in what was once a graveyard. It seems strange to think that amongst the cold "hic jacets" of the Chinese dead you should be busily hitting the little white ball again. The explanation is simple. The Chinese have a religious prejudice in favour of burying their dead on hillsides, and thus the outskirts of a town are, if at all hilly, usually full of old Chinese graves. As the great majority of the dead were poor coolies, their graves are but mounds of turf, with an occasional monument to some more considerable person. This burying, and the consequent, if rather perfunctory, care of the graveyard prevent the jungle re-occupying the hills and the grazing of cattle keeps down the grass. In course of time a more decent regard for sanitation and neatness and also a feeling that the Chinese dead should not be allowed to monopolise the best lands near the towns, result in the Chinese being obliged to bury in more defined places and not scatter their dead broadcast over the land. The generation which regarded the graves dies out, the memory of them fades, but no one cares to build yet awhile on such a site, so it is turned over to a golf club, which desires merely to make the best of the surface and will leave the dead beneath to sleep in peace. Polo is a game which appeals greatly to the more energetic portion of the community, and twice a week strings of ponies go out in the afternoon to the race-course, the polo ground being inside the rails. Twice in the year and indeed sometimes oftener, are race

meetings, gatherings for which society puts on its best frocks and hats, where, besides the races for various classes of horses, the ingenious system of "griffins" permits the poor man to compete on terms of equality with the rich and provides a gamble of the most extremely hazardous type from the very moment a horse is drawn to the moment when he wins. The griffin system is common all over the East and its results must have been the delight and despair of generations of Englishmen. It is simple. A turf club decides to import twenty or so horses, usually from Australia. Before they arrive the members of the club put down their names for a horse each, or half a horse each, or a leg each. The horses arrive, are numbered, drawn for by lot, and led away to be trained. You have got no distance with it yet, but observe what you have already done. You have paid probably £50 for a horse, probably worth nothing at all, and equally probably worth—locally—£500. Convinced that he is worth five hundred you send him to a trainer, or hoping he is worth a little more perhaps than five you train him yourself. And what a period for the owner is that training! It may last two months, every day of which is, to the real kind of griffin owner, crammed with a most fearful joy. Tired with his long sea voyage, poor in condition, your horse refuses to feed and you must coddle him; or he goes to the other extreme and greedily eats himself into a colic. Thus he goes near to die either of a surfeit or of an insufficiency. When you have corrected either extreme, if he does not develop any other equine



KIEINGROTH, *Photographer.*

GOLF IN TAIPING

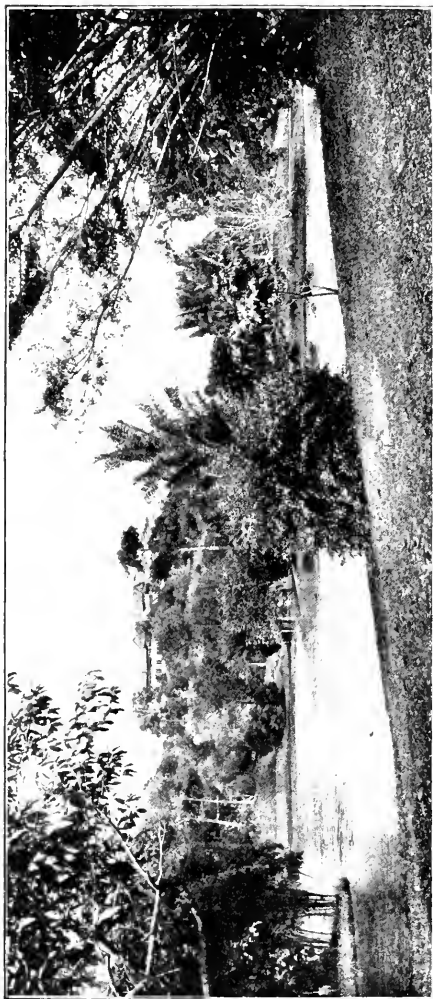
distemper, he soon shows you that he is too sluggish to care what is on his back or too lively to retain anyone there. You discover after a month that he can run swiftly a matter of two furlongs, which is not far enough, or else cannot run until after he has been three miles, which is too far. He does extraordinary times against the watch, when you hold it, but is shockingly beat at 4.15 a.m. by your friend's old nag against which, with every circumstance of secrecy, you try him. As like as not he suffers from that complaint of infants, strangles, or dies of glanders or betrays a mysterious disease called big-head. Belike he does none of these things, but disquiets you unreasonably by eating his food and doing his gallop with a patient regularity which becomes shocking, and suspect. Within a week of the race you hear that So-and-So's griffin, too highly tried, has dropped dead on the training track, and you wonder whether you are asking too much of your own every morning. In short, through a period which may extend to more than two months or may mercifully be less, you suffer the extreme agonies of the gambler and run the gamut of human emotions. The great day comes, and, if no accident arrives before or on it to your own horse, and plenty of accidents happen to other people's horses, you see your griffin sailing home easily, winning by many a length. It is well worth while to win a griffin race and it is even well worth while to lose, but it is better worth while to train a griffin, even if you never bring him to the post.

The roads of Kuala Lumpur, made of red laterite do not reflect the glare of the sun as do granite or marble roads, though the red dust drifts and clings in dry weather to white skirts, to the distraction of that neat whiteness which the Englishwoman affects in Malaya. Laterite is a soft material and you can canter a horse along such roads without fearing for his legs. In the bright mornings, before the sun is too strong, is the time to take horse, or even rikisha, and ride through enchanted gardens, along the borders of their lake, and out beyond to where the jungle still stands. Here "the skirts of the forest, like fringe upon a petticoat," enclose the outer boundaries of the town. On a bright morning, after a heavy rain overnight, you may keep an eye spying for tracks and pick up in the soft red mud or gravel by the side of the road the pudgy impress of the tiger's pad. By it you notice the track of a pig, and idly wonder whether the tiger went supperless to bed at dawn. In a dried puddle, so tiny that "no-eyes" will miss them and "eyes" only see them because he expects them, are the tiny hoof marks of Plandok, the mouse deer, whose pencil-thin legs have tripped across the road just before you came round the corner. A heavy beat of pinions in the distance catches the attention and you look up to see, clanging across the break which the road makes in the jungle, a family flock of half-a-dozen hornbills. They settle in a wild fig-tree and with clamorous squawks hop clumsily about it, gobbling the fruit. Afar off something calls "kuau,-kuau,-kuau." It is Kuau, the argus pheasant,

the "all-eyes" of the jungle, the skulking bird which no one ever sees, more wary than the peacock, and of the peacock it has been said that no man ever yet hid from a peacock. So wary is the argus that it requires little faith almost to be persuaded that in each of the spots in his sweeping tail feathers is a veritable eye. If you are riding or driving, the monkeys, whose province in life is to annoy other people, wait until you are quite, quite close, and then plunge back from the edge to the inside of the jungle with startling crashes, which have their duly intended effect of frightening your horse and yourself. A little old grandfather ape with a black face, twinkling eyes and a white hangman's beard makes you forgive them as he peers in wizened curiosity for a last moment before rejoining his leaping spouse, their babe beneath her bosom, clinging there as she leaps across the leafy chasms. It is at this moment that you disgustfully remember how when you are on foot with a gun in the jungle the Malay with you will whisper urgently, "Shoot, Tuan, shoot the mother, and we shall catch the little one!"

Or in the evening, as the dying eye of day with a last expiring gleam lights up the splashes of colour on the flowering shrubs of the gardens, you ride slowly through and feast your eyes on the masses of purple bougainvillea, the yellow trumpets of the alamanda, the drooping and dropping heliotrope flowers of some unknown tree mingling with the red dust on the road. The distance grows dim, a weird apple-green tint spreads over the whole prospect, the strange shape

of twilight gloom out around you, and Tiptibau, the nightjar, races through the swooning air overhead, calling and answering. The first flying-fox, high up, appears over the hill-tops, and with characteristic precision wings his way across the sky. A sword-beaked night-hawk dashes round a tree, tilts to avoid you, and is gone in shadows. Heavy droning beetles urge a cumbrous flight close by your ear, and as night arrives a screaming chorus begins to rise from frogs in the lake and ponds and from insects in the jungle. Irregular at first it settles down at last, so that you distinguish the dignified "onk, onk, onk" of the big frogs, the yapping of their smaller brethren, and the high thin wail, something like the song of the telegraph wire, which nightly goes up from the creeping and flying things innumerable, for whom the jungle night is day. These insects have a cautious habit which baulks curiosity, for if you select a bush and stalk it, intending to peer through the growing gloom and see what it is which sings so loud and so free at eventide, the sound ceases suddenly. But sometimes you will manage to locate a single singer in the earlier evening and will discover that he is a mole-cricket sitting just inside his burrow, rubbing his serrated thighs across each other and making the heaped earth around his dwelling in the ground vibrate to his emotions. But it is not the mole-cricket alone who is responsible for the volume of sound which fills a tropical night, for many another creature adds his reedy shrill pipe thereto. When night has really come Tiptibau changes his note to "tok-tok-tok,"



KLEINGROTHE, *Photographer.*

THE BRITISH RESIDENCY-GENERAL, KUALA LUMPUR

repeated either once only or a few times or many times with monotonous irregularity. His rival is a little owl which coos in the blank distance, and the two seem to compete for your attention. But an ominous "ping" makes itself heard and perhaps a vicious bite. It is the hour of the mosquito. Just at dusk and for an hour after he is at his worst in gardens and outdoors generally, though indoors, at the club or at home, he is, even at these hours, if always rather obtrusive, still a little more endurable. In many places where he is destroyed carefully in bulk and in detail you would hardly know he existed. The dark, which in this middle of the world falls with hardly half an hour's variation soon after six all the year round, brings your ride, your drive or your walk to an end, but the concert of the insects, the frogs and the night birds go on all night long, for their day begins as your evening draws in.

The gardens and lake which are such a feature of Kuala Lumpur are about half a mile from the railway station. Just before their gates stands the Museum, an account of which will be found elsewhere. But the whole of the English quarter of Kuala Lumpur is one garden with roads in every direction contouring the hills and continually offering at every turn fresh scenes of that restrained but still tropical beauty which results from successful effort to preserve some only of the jungle and keep the rest of the ground in green lawns and shady paths. The impression left by the town on the mind of the traveller is of perpetual freshness, verdure and colour, of bright lights and

scented breezes, and of a spacious picturesqueness very grateful to the eye.

Sixteen miles from Kuala Lumpur by
Dusun Tua. road is the Dusun Tua bungalow. This delightful spot is approached along a road branching off from the road to Kajang and lies in the valley of the Langat river. No mining is allowed above the river so that the water comes down from the hills beyond most crystal-clear and limpid, twinkling in the sun, and, like the brook of Tennyson, "bubbles into eddying bays." Opposite the bungalow at Dusun Tua is one of these eddying bays, and here too are the "lawns and grassy plots" and the "shingly bars" where the waters may

"make the netted sunbeam dance
against the sandy shallows."

Set on the bank is the bungalow. Some come to bathe in the river and in the water of the hot springs which rise close to the bungalow and flow into the river below it. Some come to drink of the hot water, for it is reported to be much the same as that of Bath, and as Prince Bladud sought health in the warm waters so nowadays may we. That melancholy exile was led to the springs of Bath by the sagacity of a pig, a "majestic swine" which was fond, as all readers of *Pickwick* will remember, of bathing, with the not unnatural result that his coat is recorded as being sleek and the complexion clear. Hot springs are a great attraction to animals, and it is probable that in the old ancient days before the coming of the white man to the springs

of Dusun Tua they were far more used by the jungle folk than by human kind, for the primitive aborigine of Malaya has not sufficient sagacity to be fond of washing. But the elephant, the rhinoceros, the sēlā-dang, the tapir, the deer and the pig love these salt licks and all over the jungles resort to them to bathe in the watery mud and to eat the sulphurous earth. But travellers are warned not to allow cart bullocks to pass a night or to graze at Dusun Tua, as either the atmosphere or the herbage is fatal to them and many have died there.

Dusun Tua bungalow, standing amongst its lawns and civilisation, has rather heightened than destroyed the charm of the hot spring, for heavy undergrowth has been cut down and you may stroll along paths among the colonnades of trees and jungle aisles, where the sun's shafts pierce the topmost leaves and flicker to your feet. As evening draws in you may sit on the lawn and wait for the flying fox and the flying squirrel. The flying fox, a large fruit-eating bat, sharp of nose and liquid of eye, comes flapping across above the tree tops, and if you have a gun you are hereby requested to shoot as many of him as possible, for he is a bitter curse to the Malay peasant, and wherever the durian blossoms there the flying fox settles, to fight and squeal and gorge himself with the heavy white flower till he must swoon with its sickly buttermilk scent. The flying squirrel, though, is no enemy of yours or of any man's, but a very beautiful harmless creature, who learnt the secret of gliding long before any aeronaut. His habit is to climb to the top of a high

tree and thence to launch himself into thin air, his legs wide apart and the otherwise loose and flapping folds of skin on either side of him stretched taut against the air. Swiftly down he glides, and as you think he must needs dash his brains out against the tree trunk for which he aims, lo, he tilts himself, rises a foot or so, and alights, clinging to the rough bark. Without an instant's delay he scurries up the tree and from its top plays the same game to reach another. A wonderful creature is the flying squirrel, so cumbered in its movements on the ground by its rufous folds of skin, yet so quick in climbing and so skilled in gliding from tree to tree. The methods of the flying lizard are much the same as his, but the lizard is a tiny thing and a very quick eye is needed to detect him when at rest. A little flash in the sunlight is usually all to give you notice that he has come and gone.

Beyond Dusun Tua the road stops or rather is no longer upkeep. But it has been formed and runs for some miles into the hills along the valley of the Langat river, the same little stream which passes Dusun Tua. If this road is ever completed it should come out in Jelebu in the Negri Sembilan.

The origin of the hot springs in the Federated Malay States is ascribed not to volcanic action but to "water entering a rock crevice on the hills and then flowing down, through the fissures, to a great depth before it rises to the surface again, and in its passage under pressure through the heated rocks it acquires its high temperature and takes up its mineral and gaseous



KLEINGROTH, *Photograph*.

COFFEE IN FRUIT (LIBERIAN VARIETY).

constituents." The temperatures of these springs range from 90° to 180°, and the traveller should beware lest, forgetting the fate of the pig of the Bladud legend, he imprudently take a bath at too high a temperature and, like that natural philosopher, be no more.

**The Coast
Rubber Belt.**

Though much of interest may be seen with Kuala Lumpur as head-quarters, yet anyone wishing to see a great stretch of rubber estates must take the train—a little over an hour's run—to Klang or else motor down by road. At Klang is the palace of H.H. the Sultan of Selangor. From Klang there is a railway to Kuala Selangor. From north of the village of Kuala Selangor to south of the town of Klang runs one long belt of rubber estates. Klang has for many years been a great district for planting and at one time it produced quantities of coffee, but this commodity, after paying highly for some years, was at last over-produced all over the world, and the price fell to a point which scarcely allowed of any profit to a planter unless he had a large estate managed on the most strictly economical lines. This unfortunate collapse in coffee might have been the ruin of the English planting community, but these gentlemen were not devoid of grit, not lacking in energy, not spoiled by prosperity. They sought for some other product with which to replace their coffee bushes and they found *Hevea Brasiliensis*, the Para rubber of commerce. It is now some thirty years since Sir Hugh Low, a former British Resident of Perak, imported from Ceylon, whither

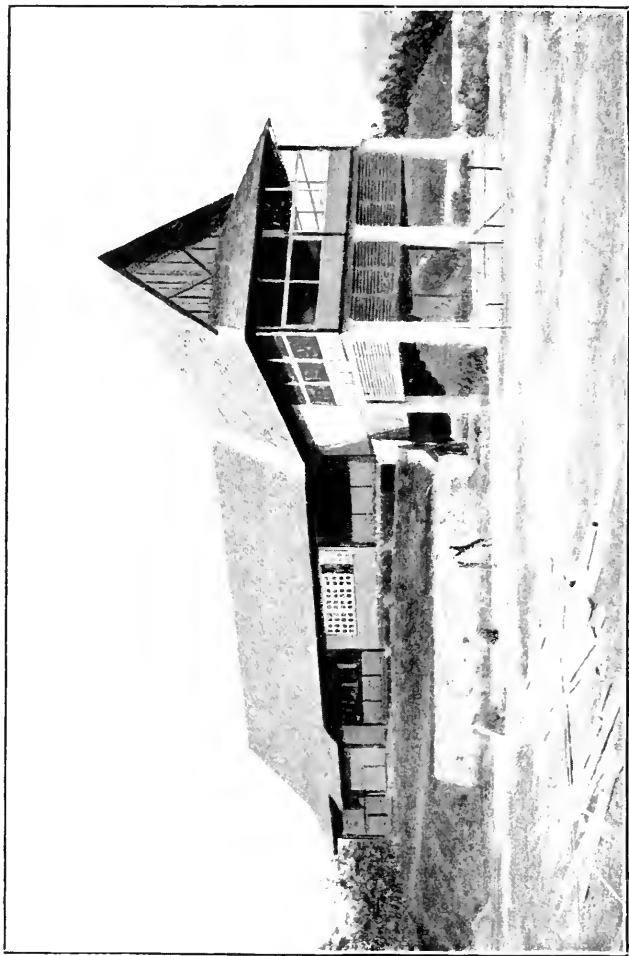
they had been sent from Kew, Kew having received them from Brazil in South America, a number of seeds or plants of this rubber tree, with the idea that as the Malayan and the Brazilian climates are not dissimilar the tree might flourish equally well in Malaya as in Brazil. The first importations succeeded very well; the trees grew and in time were multiplied by the distribution of seeds from the Government nurseries, but for some years it was thought that the difficulties attending the tapping for rubber made the planting of them commercially impracticable. But eventually this difficulty was got over and, with a romantic suddenness, the English planters realised that rubber would be enormously profitable. From that day of illumination they have never looked back. Coffee estates became rubber estates; coconuts were no longer planted; land was taken up and new estates opened for rubber. To get the necessary capital companies were floated, locally, in Ceylon, in England; the price of rubber seeds rose, and they were for a short time procurable with difficulty, many coming from Ceylon. Rubber became an assured success, more especially as the market price rose with great suddenness in 1909, and the resultant profits on the sales allowed of enormous dividends. The cultivation and the industry are briefly described elsewhere. Anyone wishing to see for himself the greatest expanse of rubber in Malaya will see it in Klang, Kuala Selangor, and also in Kuala Langat, a coast district south of Klang, accessible only by road or else by Government launch from Port Swettenham.

Kuala Langat District. Kuala Langat, whose principal village is Jugra, is an agricultural district with a sparse Malay population and a number of rubber estates. At Morib it possesses a fine sandy beach washed by the summer seas of the Straits of Malacca, and some day no doubt this will be the Brighton of Kuala Lumpur. At present it is not developed and access to it by road has until lately been difficult. Now, however, that the ferry over the Langat river has been replaced by a bridge higher up, Morib is more readily accessible from Klang by road. It is not the case in Malaya that the coast is unhealthy as compared with the uplands, though there is a distinct difference between their climates.

Port Swettenham. On the railway beyond Klang is Port Swettenham, a world-port, with a steam tonnage of more than a million a year and an annual trade of some twelve-and-a-half millions sterling. It lies at the landward end of an estuary in which meet the Klang and Langat rivers, and dates from the year 1901 only. The construction of it having been determined it was necessary first of all to provide some dry land, for the whole site was a tidal flat covered with mangrove growing in mud and salt water. The railway which formerly ended at Klang was therefore prolonged to the mouth of the Klang river and thousands of truck-loads of earth dumped along the sea front. At the same time a passenger jetty and three wharves to carry railway trucks were built. The jetty is on screw piles, but

the wharves rest on large cylinders driven down into the mud, the deepest going 132 feet. The port, both during construction and afterwards, proved shockingly unhealthy. Malarial fever was rife and contrary to expectation grew worse steadily. Luckily it was just at this time that Governments all over the world were beginning to put into practice the conclusions of science in relation to malaria, and it was determined by the Selangor Government to put a bund or dyke all round the site, which should keep out the sea water, and to provide gates in it to drain off the rain water. As soon as the site became dry, malaria absolutely ceased, the anopheles mosquitoes, which had bred in myriads in the swamp, even in the brackish pools of mingled sea and rain water, being dried out. This was a most notable achievement, and has now become a classical instance of what can be done. It was felt all over the medical world, for the work had been deliberately undertaken with a definite object, and its progress, with its concurrent effects, was kept under observation until the expected result was reached. Yellow fever was driven out of Havana much about the same time, and the Panama Canal zone has been freed from malaria by draining and filling operations similar to those undertaken at Port Swettenham.

The P. and O. homeward intermediate steamers call at Port Swettenham and there load thousands of boxes of rubber from the estates. £5,256,211 worth was exported in 1918. The port is a very fine natural harbour, whose advantages have



been better realised by the great steamship lines since it has been surveyed by the Navy. But natural beauties it has none, being nothing more than wharves, sheds, offices and houses dumped in a mangrove swamp lying on a mangrove fringed river mouth. There are 1,000 feet of deep-water wharves, capable of berthing ocean-going steamers.

Southwards
from
Kuala Lumpur—
Kajang. An hour on the railway beyond Kuala Lumpur the train stops at the pretty little village of Kajang, a centre for rubber estates, and the headquarters of a considerable tin mining district. The main trunk road also runs through it, but the place presents no features of unusual interest (except that Dusun Tua fourteen miles away can be perhaps more easily reached from it than from Kuala Lumpur).

Seremban. The train now bears us away to Seremban, the capital of the State of Negri Sembilan. Sembilan means nine, Negri means States, and the name recalls the fusing under British Protection of nine jarring atoms of independent Malay princedom into one considerable State. Its native ruler is the Yam Tuan Besar of the Negri Sembilan, whose seat is at Sri Menanti, in the Kuala Pilah district, as described further on. Seremban town somewhat recalls Kuala Lumpur, for its English quarter is also spread out upon hills and lies amid gardens, but its population is very much smaller than that of Kuala Lumpur, its public buildings are not so good, and it

suffers somewhat from comparison with Kuala Lumpur, only a couple of hours away by rail. If, however, it is intended to see something of the surrounding country, Seremban makes an excellent headquarters.

Seremban is the junction for Port

Port Dickson. Dickson, a health resort, in a modest way, situated on one of the rare sand beaches of the West coast. It is not, however, on the road to anywhere and so has but a local fame. Yet it is certainly as pretty as a very similar beauty spot, Mount Lavinia, near Colombo. By rail from Seremban it is $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours, and will repay a visit if the time can be spared. By road it is 25 miles.

Kuala Pilah is from Seremban twenty-
Seremban to four miles by road. The outskirts
Kuala Pilah. of Seremban are rather complicated, and anyone motoring should be sure he is on the right road. The race-course lies on the left, about a mile out, and beyond it the road offers little of interest until the Bukit Putus pass is reached. Here begins one of those long and very beautiful climbs upward to which the traveller, if he has gone by road from north to south through the country, will have grown almost accustomed. But custom cannot stale the infinite variety of the jungle or dull the feeling of vague gratitude to someone, we know not whom, who has made it possible for us to pass thus, in comfort and pleasure, through its deepest recesses. The road is in the jungle indeed but not of it, for what can be more foreign to the jungle than this weedless surface, this

uncompromising smooth metalling, this orderly alignment of a road? Yet the jungle seems scarce conscious that the heart of it has been cut open and its beating exposed. The blue and black butterfly which flits unobtrusively through the flickering blue and black lights of the forest will yet congregate in numbers on the bright surface of the road, and here, where a little spring has forced itself through the steam-rolled metal, a band of yellow butterflies and white butterflies chase each other to and fro or sit sipping the moisture on the road surface. Shrill insects scream in the dark recesses by the roadside and here and there a bank has slipped. Such slips are the jungle's perpetual reminder of its right of way. Neglect them for a month and the jungle has covered their bare earth. Continue to neglect them and you will find they have slipped yet a little further. Neglect them longer and there they are on the metal. Gradually they would creep forward and the slip on the other side, a slip away from the road, would eat into the formation to meet them. Between the two it would be no long time before that original owner, the jungle, had come back again. The jungle never forgets. It remembers, though you never knew it till now, that just about the place where the road winds and climbs, and climbs and winds to leave the Sungei Ujong plain and pierce to Terachi on the other side of the hills the Malays, about Christmas 1875, selected the narrow pass and stockaded it to resist the British. But a combined force of Royal Artillery, Gurkhas, and Naval Brigade, one of their

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officers winning the Victoria Cross, turned the position, and drove out its defenders. Long ago though it be that the stockade was built and demolished, it is not beyond all conjecture that somewhere in those dim depths to which you look down from the road there lie, deep in the bosom of the woods, rotten and dead as the cause they once supported, the heavy timbers of the old stockade.

Two miles up and two miles down bring us at last to the vale of Terachi and along it, occasionally cutting off a corner, the road runs in to Kuala Pilah. The whole way is one long series of pictures. Whether the padi be green and springing, golden and swept with waves of shadow, or the fields fallow between the seasons, the fairness of the vale appeals, and here, if anywhere, you think, people must lead happy lives. Here is a people who know no fret of cities, no wandering over wastes of weary, weary sea, no blank despair of deserts, but a calm enjoyment of the fruits in their seasons of an earth so bountiful that the primal curse of labour seems forgotten. The primitive rammed-earth dam or some slight barricade of wood and drifted river sand has raised the mountain streams at different points, and that ingenious rule of thumb irrigation in which the Malay excels—he is somewhat inclined to the belief that “plumb and rule guide many a fule”—suffices to bring hundreds of acres into heavy crop. Along the sides of the valley are groves and orchards, so that every man may sit “under his own vine and under his own fig tree” or under the Malay equivalent

of the same, his own durian tree and his own coconut palm. They are a healthy people, like all Malays in real Malay conditions, vexed only at times by an outbreak of smallpox, now very occasional, for the younger generation are vaccinated, and plagued, like all natives of the tropics, by fevers. Their heaviest death-rate is probably among the small children, misfed and mismanaged like the infants of every race under the sun.

At the twentieth mile from Seremban is a turn to the right leading to the Astana of H.H. the Yam Tuan Besar at Sri Menanti. From the turn to the palace it is five miles, over a very pretty road up a valley. The palace itself is built entirely of dark red wood in Malay style, the two ends raking skywards to flamboyant gables. Set against the background of dark green hills with a broad lawn in front it is the fitting culmination of the Sri Menanti valley and its dozens of little Malay houses, any one of which might serve as model for the Astana itself.

The town of Kuala Pilah lies on the Muar river. The highest hill in the town is the site of the District Officer's house, and if one's energy suffices to get to the top there is a fine view to be had over the valley of the Muar and that vast stretch of unexplored country lying in the Pahang direction to the east of Kuala Pilah.

In the main street of the town is a monument to the memory of the Hon. Martin Lister, first British

Resident, which the Chinese and other inhabitants of Kuala Pilah set up a few years ago.

The way from Kuala Pilah to Tampin is by a road very similar in its main features to that between Seremban and Kuala Pilah. About half way is a pass between the hills, equally beautiful with Bukit Putus. The road metal here is serpentine, an ornamental stone of a very fine green colour, which should have some value as a building material some day. At present it is nothing accounted of, being inferior to granite for road surfacing. To metal roads with serpentine seems "wasteful and ridiculous excess," but Ipoh goes further and metals hers with marble quarried from the limestone rock, and at Sungei Besi at one time it was found difficult to prevent Chinese women from scraping the surface of the roads and washing the product for tin. "Quand on n'a pas ce qu'on aime, il faut aimer ce qu'on a," and when granite is not to be got for macadam you have to put up with marble or serpentine, or even tin.


The railway between Seremban and
Southwards
from Seremban. Tampin, after leaving first the mining plain round Seremban and then the rubber estates, runs right through Rembau, a purely Malay district, which, with other parts of the Negri Sembilan, has rather peculiar customs of its own. The origin of these is somewhat of a mystery, but tradition states that when the immigrant ancestors of the present Malays came from Menangkabau, in

Sumatra, to this part of the Peninsula, they married with the women of the aboriginal stock and through them acquired their title to the land. Certain it is that up to the present day the custom has prevailed of all the land being held by the women, who are unable to sell it except by consent of a sort of family council. With this custom go others, chiefly those growing up in a highly democratic community which has never brooked any interference from any Malay authority and has never been offered any by the British. The Malays of the Negri Sembilan, and especially those of Rembau and Kuala Pilah, have worked out their own salvation in their own way and as the railway, running north and south across hills and valleys running east and west, takes you through an unending succession of orchards and rice fields, occupied by a large and a permanent native population, you are constrained to admit that the problem of how to be happy in Malaya has been long ago solved by these people. They grow no trade products. When the bottom fell out of coffee it was not they who were left lamenting. Fluctuations in the price of copra or rubber do not touch them. But they have created out of the jungle a most beautiful countryside, a little spoiled, perhaps, nowadays by the railway if viewed from the road, but viewed from the railway it is still one of the most delightful tracts in all Malaya and too soon passed through in the train. Rembau is the only stretch of country of any interest or picturesqueness between Kuala Lumpur and

Singapore. From Kuala Lumpur to Kajang the country chiefly consists of uninteresting lalang-covered hills, swamps caused by mining, spoil heaps, dumps and mining holes. Beyond Kajang comes a stretch of rubber, then jungle until Seremban is reached. Outside Seremban is mining again, then rubber, then, happily, Rembau, then more lalang, and finally the train is swallowed up between those two high walls of forest primeval which are the Gemas to Johore part of the line. At Gemas you leave the Federated Malay States.

Tampin and Malacca. Tampin is the junction, whether by road or rail, for Malacca. The very name is high romantic. The Malays founded it, Albuquerque and his Portuguese attacked them, seized the town and held it, building a cathedral in blocks of soft laterite which harden on exposure to the air. In great state they lived there, looking out from their eyrie on the hill over the summer seas of the Straits, until one day the great ships of the Dutch hove up into view, lumbering on the horizon, and for the second time the moving finger wrote upon Malacca's walls that the glory had departed. The Dutch turned the Portugals out and themselves occupied Malacca, burying their great men from time to time in the cathedral on the hill. They too built a church still used. Solid men, decent traders, heavy-handed to the native Malay, Malacca saw them in turn conquered by the British, and for a third time a glory departed. Lest they in turn should be ejected and its strong walls

protect another nation, the English, at vast expense, blew up the fortifications, leaving not one stone upon another, except at the great gate now called, mistakenly, Albuquerque's. To this day it stands, frowning at the sea. Expectant of yet another conqueror? Perhaps so, for the whirligig of time brings in its revenges, and Malacca is full of ghosts. The drums and tramlings of three conquests have hardly ceased to echo, and it is only a paltry four hundred years since Europe called at Malacca. Those centuries drenched Malacca in native and foreign blood. Its laterite soil is blood-red. An eerie place is this hill, known all over the Malay world as *Kota Malacca* ; it sleeps and dreams now, the red roofs of the town below dozing in the sun, a hornet's nest hanging on the blank walls of its cathedral, the swallows screaming round the old high altar, the sun meeting no roof, beating down upon forgotten vaults, a lighthouse at the west end winking signals to ships which pass in the night but do not deign to speak Malacca in passing.



II.

NOTES FOR TRAVELLERS.

By CUTHBERT WOODVILLE HARRISON.

**Resthouses
and Hotels.**

“Is there good accommodation?” is the first question we ask about a country new to us. “What are the hotels like?” “Can we bring a lady?” As long ago as 1911 there were 940 white women in the Federated Malay States and there must be many more now. So no one need hesitate to bring his feminine belongings with him, nor need the ladies expect to be called upon to rough it. There are few hotels, but in every considerable town there is a rest-house upkept by Government. These places are very different from the old dāk-bungalows of India, being usually brick-built, clean and comfortable buildings run on hotel lines and only different from hotels in that they are not so large. But they contain everything necessary for the convenience of travellers, and the sole difficulty likely to be met in them is that the resthouse keeper does not invariably speak English. People accustomed to travelling will make light of this difficulty, for, as most of them know, travellers usually ask much the same questions all over the world and all over the world the innkeeper, whatever his colour and his mother tongue, will make shift to answer them or, if he cannot answer them in words,

he will provide that more practical form of reply, doing what he supposes you are likely to want done. The resthouses are complete in every respect and provide, or can procure, everything needed, but people who are wise enough to be particular as to their bedding will never regret bringing with them a roll containing a couple of sheets, a couple of pillow cases, a mosquito net and their favourite shape and size in pillows. Many a good night's rest can be lost and the next day rendered less pleasant by finding that one's own private idiosyncracies in these respects have not been studied in detail. Resthouses are places of public resort and, like hotels, do their best, but everyone has his own fads and no two people have ever been known to agree on the shape of a pillow or the minimum of sheet cleanliness. The food is sometimes surprisingly good and sometimes amazingly poor, for it is bound to vary with the size of the town in which the resthouse is situated, but it is always cooked after the ordinary English fashion and the table appointments are clean. The only thing which will come strange at first to a traveller is the bath. When you go into your bathroom you will see standing in a corner a large stone jar full of cold water. This is not the Englishman's tub and you are not expected to get into it. By its side you will find a tin dipper. The practice is to dip water from the jar with this vessel and douche yourself with it, not heeding the splash, for there is no wall paper or carpet to spoil and the waste water drains away to the outside. This kind of bathing gives the maximum

of cold shock and is intensely refreshing. A bath twice a day, morning and evening, is *de rigueur* in the tropics. Some people, those who have been carbonadoed in the tropic seas, take the chill off by ordering in a can of hot water and mixing it off with the cold, but those new to the country will probably wish that the cold water were colder. It is always advisable to retain rooms by letter or telegram in advance, as this warns the resthouse keeper of the approaching arrivals and may possibly stimulate him into preparing materials for meals beforehand, for in this country nothing keeps. If you leave him to expect you when he sees you, he will probably have to kill a fowl about half an hour before he cooks it. This "sudden death" dish is emphatically not the best way of treating that staple food of the Eastern traveller.

As to drinks—every resthouse stocks spirits of all kinds and bottled beer of several varieties, but wines are not usually procurable nor always of the best varieties if procured. Soda and mineral waters of all kinds are always available. Water is probably best avoided as a beverage, for one is never perfectly certain that it is pure unless one boils and filters it oneself, and life is really not long enough for these operations. The prices of everything you will find displayed in the resthouse together with a set of rules, made for the terror of evildoers and the delight of those that do well.

In the appendix is given a list of resthouses.

There are hotels in Kuala Lumpur and Ipoh.

In the whole of the Federated Malay States there are not more than five places with English names. Port Weld, Kampong Dew, Teluk Anson, Port Swettenham and Port Dickson, are all named after English administrators. Everywhere else the towns and the districts have retained the musical collocations of vocables given them by those first colonists, the Malays. The Chinese amongst themselves have either Chinese names for many places or else use corruptions of the Malay sounds, but except in the case of the city of "everlasting peace," Taiping, their names have not prevailed over the original Malay. Tamil place-names exist for the Tamil, too, but for them alone. Amongst the Malay place-names are conspicuous those beginning with Kuala, a word meaning the mouth of a river. Kuala Lumpur means the mouth of the muddy (river). Port Swettenham was formerly Kuala Klang, the mouth of the Klang river, where it debouches into the sea. Port Dickson was at one time Pulau Arang. Port Weld was Kuala Sapetang. One says *was*, but really they are all so still, for the Malay population still uses the old terms, feeling perhaps that they are quite as euphonious as the new. This country has been spared the cacophonous combinations which afflict America, where the musical Indian names have faded with the fading of a race. But in Malaya the Malays, the only race with a normal birthrate, fade not at all, but, increasing and multiplying steadily, still impose their tongue and their place-names upon all alien races. Read the names

of the towns and districts from the map, and roll the liquid syllables upon the tongue. We could not better them with our unconscionable consonantal English names, and are you not grateful that we have not tried? Each of these names has a meaning, or had; nearly all of them refer to some natural object remarked by the first nomenclators. Trees, birds, flowers, rocks, rapids, all of them have been noted by someone in the past, found true and useful descriptions by the next comer, and retained unaltered. But many of them are now unmeaning to the men of to-day, and have either to be explained by some legend or referred to the aboriginal inhabitant's naming. To take the map and consider of the names therein is an innocent pastime. Who, for instance, was 'To' Khalipah, who gave his name to a certain remote village on the Bernam river? "The iniquity of oblivion blindly scattereth her poppy and deals with the memory of men without distinction to merit of perpetuity." Be sure he was someone in his time, or such a high sounding title as Khalifa would not have been attached to him. Be equally sure that the old man was nobody at all but a Mendeling Malay who, after the custom of those immigrants from Sumatra, loved to bear a nominal dignity and gave it to the little place where he settled. What are these "Kota" names which you find everywhere? The word means a fort, of course, and they seem to have dotted a good many of them over the country in the old days. New fort and old fort, Kota Bahru and Kota Lama, even

“old fort on the left bank,” and “old fort on the right bank,” Kota Lama Kiri and Kota Lama Kanan, all memory of their “drums and tramlings” is to-day lost, but no doubt in ages long gone past one held them and another went up against them, all after the approved methods of the skulking Malay combats when the *pahlawan* and the *panglima*, the knights of old, were bold. Then what possessed them to call one of the highest hills Mount Buffalo, Gunong Kerbau, for assuredly no buffalo ever grazed its slopes? And is there anything distinctive in calling a place Bamboo Village, Kampong Buloh, seeing that there is hardly a village in the land where the bamboo hesitates to grow? Who was the stranger from the West who gave his name to Changkat Orang Puteh, White Man’s Hill? How many people were taken by the crocodile of Kampong Buaia, Crocodile Village, before they set a bait for him, caught him and speared the ugly life out of him? This nicknaming process seems to have been a great favourite in the past, and even yet it prevails. In Perak is a place called Blanda Mabok, Drunken Dutchman, named after an adventurer whose beer bottles and gin bottles still remain in a remote jungle breeding mosquitoes in the water they hold. In Negri Sembilan the British Resident’s horse dying at a point on the road between Tampin and Kuala Pilah, the Malays called, and to this day call, the place Dead Horse Hill (Bukit Kuda Mati), quite after the best allusive style of which the classic example is Dead Man’s Gulch. Black Water, White

Water, Yellow Water (Ayer Itam, Ayer Puteh, Ayer Kuning), are all very common names, and are often still referable to the colour of a stream, and the Batu Glugor (weathered rock) names are easily to be interpreted. Casuarina Tree Point (Tanjong Rhu), Fish Point (Tanjong Sepat), are plain enough, and sometime in the seventeenth century there may have been a trading station on Pulau Pintu Gedong, and this name a corruption of Pulau Pintas Gedong, Island of the Channel to the Store. Certainly ingots of tin were dug up near the lighthouse there not long ago. But of very many of these meaning and musical names all history has long been lost amongst this gentle and indolent people, who live for the happiness of to-day, and recking not of the future, equally inquire not of the past. It is a fascinating exercise to let the mind wander amongst these names, for though puzzling questions and not explicable to the satisfaction of Dryasdust, they are equally like Sir Thomas Browne's "What song the Syrens sang, or what name Achilles assumed when he hid himself among women," not beyond all conjecture.

**Hospitals and
Institutions.**

The town hospitals of Malaya are all owned by the State, the few Chinese-run hospitals being more in the nature of homes than hospitals as we know them. A description of any native hospital will serve very well for those at Taiping, Ipoh, Kuala Lumpur, Seremban and many other smaller places, for all are run upon uniform lines. The first point to note is that the

hospital stands inside a very high ring fence of wire so closely knitted that it is not possible to pass the hand through. This fence is not to keep the patients in, for every one is free to leave whenever he will, but it is intended to prevent well-meaning friends from passing food through to the patients from outside. Here is the first point of cleavage between the Occidental's and the Oriental's idea of medical treatment. The Oriental is still in that stage of thought on medical subjects which is found amongst the lower and more ignorant classes of Europe. He believes in food and plenty of it at all times. The very idea of dieting a patient is strange to him. That a man half-dead of dysentery should not be allowed to eat curry and rice seems cruelty to him and to his friends. If you walk through a hospital and ask "any complaints?" some one, some Tamil or Chinese, is certain to hold up his hand and state a grievance. You stop and listen, expecting perhaps some complaint of harsh treatment of a patient by a native dresser. But no—your grumbling patient only tells you "They don't give enough to eat—nothing but slops—no rice, no curry. My inside is empty, empty, Tuan!" With a smile you turn to the English surgeon in charge who tells you "Yes, dysentery case. He had a relapse about a week ago. We couldn't account for it. At last we discovered that his wife had thrown some curry and rice, wrapped up in a leaf, over the fence. He had eaten it. Result, relapse, and he nearly died." One admires the devotion of such wives, but wishes they knew more

of the effects of curry and rice upon the dysenteric human interior. But, after all, is it wonderful that she thought her husband was being slowly starved to death, for even more ridiculous superstitions about European medical treatment are very current. The Malays, for instance, most firmly and fully believe that if a patient is admitted to hospital and is not cured in a few days, the white doctor poisons him off. Purely fantastical though this belief is to us, it is yet based on a cross-eyed logic which convinces the Malay mind. The idea arises thus :—As all the races in the country have a great belief in European *drugs* which they can take as outside patients and prove in their own homes, so also they have a great horror of European *treatment* involving segregation in a hospital, and often surgery, “cutting pieces off people.” Those two sides of it frighten the imagination. But to their frightened imaginations they further present the well-known fact, carefully acknowledged in all the Government returns, that an enormous quantity of admissions to hospitals die within twenty-four hours of admission. The Malay puts two and two together and to his own horrified satisfaction makes five of them. Says he, “It is plain. All men know it. See how many go in and how few come out. There is a reason for this. The reason is that if a doctor sees he cannot cure a man he is bitterly ashamed. He says to himself, ‘this person shall not linger here to bring shame upon the art and practice of medicine. Better dead!’ So he poisons him and afterwards they deliver the corpse to his friends and to the Kathi,

who bury it. That is the way of it." That, of course, is precisely not the way of it. The true way of it is simpler than that and not so titillatingly horrible, being merely that people who will resort to a hospital only when they are at the last gasp will naturally die in the hospital, as indeed they would have died outside. Asiatic patients cannot bring themselves to enter a hospital until they have exhausted every native treatment. They are really embarked on the last long journey before they are taken to hospital, and it follows thus of a certainty that deaths follow admissions very rapidly. The doctors trust to time, education and demonstration to kill these ideas, but though an impression is already made, Asiatics love these beliefs and cling to them with a misplaced enthusiasm very galling to the medical profession. After all, they are no more ridiculous than many a superstition still current amongst the peasantry of Europe.

The buildings in the hospitals are all of a similar type, and consist of long airy wards, floored in cement, and lined with rows and rows of plank and trestle beds. The only race in this country which makes a practice of sleeping upon a soft mattress is the European, and he does so for the excellent reason that it is the custom in Europe. All the other races rest upon plank beds on which a grass-woven mat is laid, the Malays even laying the mat upon the floor at times. So the beds in the hospital are all planks, and each is provided with a red blanket and a wooden pillow. The pillow is wooden for the same reason as the bed is of plank, the patients being accustomed to

hard wooden pillows in their own homes. If you gave them a soft pillow they would complain. That curious cement tank in the grounds with a worm-screw and press arrangement is the place where the bed-boards are periodically soaked in disinfectants, for pauper patients are much infested with bugs and other creepy crawlies. The various diseases are kept apart as much as possible, and you will usually find a ward for beri-beri, a ward for dysentery, another for phthisis and another for malaria, and perhaps others as well. Everything is clean and neat and, if you can put up with the smell of disinfectant and the sad incidents of illness, a hospital in Malaya is well worth visiting.

The Central Lunatic Asylum for the Federated Malay States is at Tanjong Rambutan, not far from Ipoh, in Perak. The most prevalent form of lunacy in Malaya is melancholia, a quiet form of insanity which permits of the patients being kept together in association and employed in useful spade labour, either in or near the hospital, an occupation to which they have all been accustomed before their mental powers failed. Many a madman has had to thank this daily round and common task of digging for his recovery.

Somewhere near the hospital will be the leper ward. Amongst the many benefits which the British have brought to Malaya we cannot, alas, yet reckon a cure for that horrible disease of leprosy. For people affected with it little or nothing can be

done, but as they are regarded as a danger to their fellows they are segregated, some in leper wards on the mainland and some on the leper islands on the west coast of the Peninsula. The Malays have a horror of leprosy, and use various euphemistic expressions even to describe it. The duty of capturing lepers is intensely repugnant to the native headmen and the native police, and no one would ever willingly come forward and report a leper for deportation. Therefore at intervals the District Officers assemble their penghulus and require of them each a report to be sent in by a definite date as to the whereabouts of each known Malay leper in the district. The penghulus then, each in his mukim, make cautious enquiries as to whether anyone has contracted the disease since last investigation, or whether any stranger suffering from it has entered the mukim. Such enquiries are of necessity cautious, for no one would willingly disclose the existence of leprosy in a father, a mother, a wife, may be, or a husband, since segregation is certain to follow if the medical examination confirms the native diagnosis. With a pitiful devotion all kinds of shifts are tried. The affected one will live amongst the family and all will run the well-known risk of contagion, or perhaps he or she will be sent to live in some hut in the jungle, far from the habitations of men, a fugitive and outcast, fed by someone's loving care, solitary, rotting steadily with cureless disease. It may be that, refusing to recognise the first symptoms, the sufferer will resort to the house of some native doctor, there to be slowly bled

of any money he may have and slowly to watch that hideous development. Whatever evasion be practised, at last all will prove vain, for someone in the secret will either wish to curry favour with the penghulu by informing or will have a spite against the patient or the family. So at last the case is located and one early morning the penghulu and the police will attempt the capture. Advisedly we say attempt, for they do not always succeed. These poor creatures, clinging to their liberty, infected and infecting though it be, will often hide from the authorities and escape capture for long. Yet if they only would believe it their lot is, except for separation from their homes, far happier on a leper island than anywhere else. All that can be done to lighten suffering is there done and they have there a security and peace which the tainted sheep will never find so long as it remains within the healthy flock.

A decrepit ward of some kind is inevitable in every country where labour is strenuous and the labourers are aliens, for if a man go blind from accident or disease, or if he lose the use of a limb or become paralysed there is no private provision for him. So it comes about that each State maintains a home for the wastage of the economic system. The expenses, met by a very small charge on the export of tin, are very slight, consisting merely of those involved in upkeeping buildings and grounds and in feeding and clothing inmates. They are cheerful after the wont of cripples. If they still have any use of their limbs they pass their days in making baskets, and

every morning several of them sally forth from the ward to peddle their manufacture in the town. Tapping along with a stick if they are blind and uttering a doleful cry by way of advertisement, the whiteclad inmates of the decrepit ward, a large "D. W." in black on each garment, are a familiar feature.

But by this time you will have had enough of the ills to which humanity is heir and some pleasanter subject shall engage us.

**Varieties of
Race.**

Seeing that the Malay Peninsula lies midway between India and China, with a large world-port at each end, it is not surprising that there is a jumble of races to be seen in its towns and along the country roads. To recognise and name the various races and subdivisions of race as one meets them is only possible for those who have had a varied experience of the country spread over years. Let us take a walk down any street in Malaya, or, seeing that we can go a mile in a rikisha for ten cents, we will for preference stand still and beckon to the nearest puller. Our gesture in hailing him is a noticeable point of difference between European and Asiatics, for Asiatics beckon without raising the arm above the shoulder, but holding the hand towards the ground they scoop the open palm inwards to the body, whereas a European throws his hand up above the shoulder with the fingers pointing skywards. The Asiatic mode is certainly more restrained and therefore more dignified according to the manners of

good Oriental society. If the cooly understands our gesture—he may fail to interpret the English fashion of holding a stick up in the air—he, and possibly half-a-dozen of his fellows, will rush at us with his rikisha, laying the shafts at our feet and stepping out of them. He is the first person we meet in our walk down the street. What is he? He is Chinese, of course, but that explains nothing. He may belong to any one of the eight different varieties of Chinese which appear on the census list, except perhaps Straits-born, for Chinese born in the country are not given to such violent exertions as rikisha pulling. But whether your puller be Hokkien, Cantonese, Hainan, Kheh, Teo-Chiu, Kwong Hsi or “other Chinese” matters little to you, so it be that he can pull. Running you through the town at the breakneck speed or the slow crawl for which the differing physiques of him are infamously famous, he will pay little or no attention to your directions so long as you attempt to speak to him in any known tongue. But as the first and most necessary accomplishment of the traveller is to speak the universal language of grunts and signs, you will merely grunt at each corner you wish to turn and at the cross roads add a sign with your hand as an indication of the desired direction. As you go along you will see, of course, Chinese everywhere of all the eight different tribes, each man going about his business as if he were really interested in it. The police who are met at intervals will be either Malays or Indians. This sounds a simple statement, but the

last census recognised nine different kinds of Malay and the differences between them are considerable. Federated Malaya has attracted a large population of Malays from the States on its borders, who, though of the same race as the Malays of the Federated Malay States, are somewhat different from them, and speak, with differing accents, a language which is very susceptible of local variation. Even Malays of the Peninsula differ amongst themselves a good deal: the Malay from the east coast States is more often than not remarkable for ugliness, having the depressed nose and heavy jowl which will spoil any countenance, and he gives the impression of having been poorly nourished in youth, whereas the Malacca Malay of the west coast is of a goodly countenance and not so Mongolian in type. The Boyanese Malay, that gorgeous person in a saice's blue livery and broad leather belt, driving, somewhat aggressively, a pair of chestnuts in a victoria, is of a softer type again, more round-faced and feminine than the Javanese Malay gardener who passed you just now with his wife and children trailing behind him. The black-a-vised, straightnosed person with a slight moustache, wearing a red fez, is of a cross between the Indian of the Coromandel Coast and the Peninsula Malay, neither full Aryan nor yet full Mongolian, but he would be quite surprised if you told him he was not a Malay, for he counts as one locally and can only speak the Malay language, the Tamil or Telegu tongue of his ancestors not having been handed down in the family. Those two ostenta-

tiously modest little women, who drew their wimples over their faces as you passed them but were relenting enough to give you time to see that they were heavily powdered and covered with native jewellery, are Malays from the mainland opposite Penang, whose husbands are "boys" earning good wages in some English household. And if you could talk to the old crone in charge of that brown baby at the entrance to the carriage drive in front of you it might be found that she has strayed from Rembau in the middle of the Peninsula, a district where they have quite separate customs and traditions and all the land is entailed to pass through the female line. The Achinese Malay may usually be distinguished as taller and more given to beard and moustache than other Malays. He enquires his way from a Dutch Borneo Malay from Banjarmasin, who first came to us to plant padi in Krian. If they ever became friendly enough to discuss their homes and you could hear them, you would find that they came over here because they find it easier to make a living in the Federated Malay States than in Dutch territory. They would also tell you, if you had the patience to listen, that they are more sympathetically administered here, which may be true or may be merely flattery aimed to your address. The haughty, tall, light-brown man with the green turban and long white stole worn inside a voluminous cloak is no less a person than one of the two million descendants of the Prophet. Centuries ago his Arab ancestors came over to Sumatra and

founded numerous families of Saiyids by intermarrying with Malays, and to this day the exceedingly small drop of Arabic blood in them marks them off from other Malays in appearance and in social position.

But whilst all this has been passing through your mind the descendant of the lost tribes who is between the shafts has run you to the outskirts of the town and you are like to miss noticing the different varieties of Indian, and even yet you have not seen a Bugis, a Dyak or a Manila Malay. So turn back again and run through the town once more. The first policeman you meet is a Sikh, with a curled beard and moustache and his hair dragged to the top of his head, where it is tied up and hidden by his turban. Had the Police rejected him as a recruit he would have had to descend to the profession of watchman to some large firm or some wealthy Chinese. This is not so desirable as the Police. As the Indian convict said to the free man with whom he had a quarrel, "I serve the Government, but who are you?" Perhaps our Sikh policeman might have been reduced to the purely unofficial occupation of herding cows, watering the milk thereof at the nearest ditch, and selling it to doting English mothers, a favourite pursuit of his race in this land where grazing costs nothing, grass never runs short, house rent may be so low as half-a-crown a year if you squat on Government land, and no one objects to your wearing a single garment made out of a flour-bag when you have eaten the flour. Many a Sikh so

dressed may be seen driving a bullock cart. An ostentatiously naked person passed just now, wearing a voluminous white cloth which seems designed to cover as little surface as possible. As he clacks along on his sandals you recognise his shaven head and the gold chain fitting close round his neck which denotes the Chetty. He, too, comes from India and acts as banker in Malaya. He will lend you money at rates varying from 36 per cent. downwards, or upwards for the matter of that, and any amount of it too, if he thinks you are safe. He is of the same breed but by no means of the same caste as the humble Tamil coolie whom you saw just now at the provision shop expending a few cents on food, and if the Chetty wears little the coolie wears less, for a loin cloth is all he has on. The generic name given by the Malays to Indians other than Tamils is "Bengali," and under this head they include Sikh, Pathan, Panjabi, Mussulman, Kashmiri, Waziri, Bengali, Rajput, Afghan, Behari and all the varied breeds of men from India who are not either "Kling Hindu" or "Kling Islam." It is not sufficient, mark you, to class a man as Kling (or Tamil) for he may be either of the Hindu religion or a follower of the prophet Muhammad, distinctions in the East of the gravest import. There is yet a further distinction than these two, for the Ceylon Tamil or Jaffna Tamil is numerous enough to be noted. He is almost invariably a clerk in a Government office and dresses like the European in white linen tunic and trousers. Before you finish your run back through the town you may see Sinhalese,

each man with a tortoise-shell comb in his long hair ; Siamese, with their hair reaching their shoulders ; an Arab or so, and perhaps single stray representatives of the African negro, the Annamese, the Burman, certainly several Eurasians, and also Japanese.

If you look back over these pages you will find some thirty varieties of the human race mentioned, and it only remains to say that in some towns you will see the Sakai, "wild through woods the naked savage," who still for preference skulks in the jungles and still, in spite of the evidence before him whenever he ventures near a town, believes that this land is really his and is still best enjoyed if left covered with the jungle. These aborigines number, according to the census, but a bare thirty thousand amongst the more than a million of other races, but the middle of the Peninsula is so covered with hills clothed in thick jungle that they have there a secure refuge for probably many generations, and perhaps there are many there who have never been returned on a census schedule.

**Opium,
Morphia,
and Alcohol.**

In the course of your goings to and fro in the towns of Malaya you will notice that every shop has its sign, some in English and some in Chinese. Those in Chinese are picturesque and bright in colour. Those in English are squarely ugly. When our eye has at last become accustomed to the jumble it will begin to pick out a square black and white sign, "Licensed Chandu Shop," with the date of the year on it, the

inscription being in Chinese and Malay. In a town like Taiping, with its population of about 8,000 Chinese, there are nineteen of these shops. You have no idea, of course, what chandu is. Look it up in the dictionary and you will find it is "opium prepared for smoking." It hangs out a sign like a public-house. If you were in London, in Liverpool, in New York, in Toulon, in Marseilles, in San Francisco, in Sydney, in Melbourne, in Calcutta, in Bombay, in Cairo, in Constantinople or any of the other very few places, as the above sparse list shows, where people smoke opium, you would find it decently hidden away. To visit its haunts there you would require the services of a police officer probably, or some secret introduction. Here in Malaya the trade is licensed by Government, like the liquor trade. It would be a pity for you to destroy your illusions, would it not? If you entered one of these shops you might not be sufficiently disgusted; you might even weaken in your anti-opium belief. But there is such a fascination in vice that one feels sure you will yield to temptation and enter. You need never be afraid to do so, for this little town is not one of the world's Babylons, and you will not be drugged, robbed, murdered, or even insulted in an opium shop. But here you are already glozing over the evil and beginning to call the place an opium shop. It has imprescriptible rights to be called a den, an opium den. However you choose to call it, here you are inside an opium den, shop or divan, and the very unusual spectacle you present affords opportunity for a small knot of idlers to cluster round the door and

wonder what you are after. Their presence darkens the already gloomy interior of a ground floor, and you begin to wonder precisely what you came in to see. Have patience, and from the back will come a hollow-cheeked Chinese, his natural pale ivory colour blanched a deader shade by long smoking of opium and much sitting indoors. As you still stand and are evidently not immediately going away he will draw forward a wooden stool or a bench and politely offer you a seat. Sit down a moment, try to remember all you have read of opium dens, realise that you are inside one, and compare that reality with what you have read. Alas for illusions, you will never preserve them here. You will see no little children sucking an opium pipe instead of their mother's breast, no girls abandoned to a life of shame and misery and opium-smoking, no hardened criminals drugging to sleep their guilty consciences, no once prosperous merchants who have fallen to all for opium and the world well lost. You will not even be very struck by the physical deterioration of the lounging Chinese on the wooden benches of the shop, benches strongly reminiscent of those in a kennel of hounds, by the way. Certainly an atmosphere of quiet broods over the place and certainly your presence seems to jar on the smokers, but these "mild-eyed melancholy lotos-eaters" reckon little of you and when you rise to depart they do not alter their attitude.

The fact that you have been in an opium shop hardly qualifies you to pass lenient or severe judgment on the vice and the trade. That has been done

locally by a Royal Commission in the Straits Settlements recently. The conclusions were:

"The vast majority of smokers indulge to an extent that may properly be called moderate, and there has been no increase in the prevalence of the habit during the past decade." The Commission recommended a Government monopoly of the preparation and distribution of chandu, and considered that there was no necessity or justification for the abolition of existing opium shops. In addition it sounded a warning note about the injection of morphia, a drug habit which made its appearance here as soon as the anti-opium propaganda revived—it has cycles of activity—and opium was made dearer. You will not be afforded the opportunity of seeing the injection of morphia. It is done secretly in spots hidden from the police at night, in some hut along winding paths, in some backyard in a town. It is much cheaper than opium, more difficult for a Government to control, more horrible in its eventual effects.

You leave the opium den with the dominant idea in you that they are very harmless people, and that opium smoking is at least a self-contained vice. As you muse over this disquieting and unexpected thought, you are, perhaps, yet more disquieted to see, fighting with an enormous Sikh policeman, a Tamil coolie. He shouts, struggles, creates an uproar. The street buzzes round him. A rumour whispers that he has cut his wife's throat. Another policeman, this time a very diminutive Malay, comes up to help and between them they drag the Tamil person to the lock-up.

He is, of course, maddened with opium? Not in the least—he is maddened with alcohol.

The Federated Malay States has a very **Shooting.** complete game law, which classifies the game birds and game animals and provides that licences are necessary to shoot either. New arrivals and bona-fide sportsmen landing at Penang or Singapore will find that special police arrangements are in force to enable them to import their arms and ammunition and also to obtain shooting licences. It should be clearly understood that these permits or licences are of five kinds :

- (1) Permit to import arms and ammunition.
- (2) Permit to carry arms (Anglice, gun licence.)
- (3) Game licence (game birds).
- (4) Big game licence.
- (5) Wild birds licence (for naturalists and collectors).

The police regulations are as follows :—

(1) New arrivals and bonâ-fide sportsmen on application to the chief police officer at Singapore or Penang will be issued with a special temporary permit to import arms and ammunition into these States.

(2) Such permits must bear on the face of them the name of the owner and the description and maker of the weapon and the quantity and description of the ammunition.

(3) They are issued only on the distinct understanding that they must be immediately presented to the senior police officer of the district into which they are imported. The temporary permit will be

retained and a permit to import (free) and a permit to carry (fee 50 cents = 1s. 2d.) be charged.

(4) Bonâ-fide sportsmen will also have to pay for a game licence, fee (\$5 = 11s. 8d.) procurable from the chief police officer of any district.

(5) Big game licences are issued by the Resident.

**The Game
Laws.**

“Big Game” includes elephant, gaur, banteng, rhinoceros and tapir only, and to shoot them a licence is required.

Tiger, bear, leopard, panther, deer, serau and pig are outside the pale. A big game licence costs, if one be non-resident in the country, \$100 (£11 13s. 4d.) per head, lasts for six months, and may be procured by writing to the Resident of the State in which it is proposed to shoot, mentioning the number and nature of head desired, enclosing the fee and giving an address in the Peninsula to which the licence may be sent. A licence issued in one State must be endorsed by the Resident of any other State in which it is proposed to shoot.

The game birds of the Peninsula include peacock and various kinds of jungle pheasants, very rarely shot as they skulk in the deep jungle, quail, which are not numerous and anyhow hardly worth shooting, jungle fowl, which are numerous, but not easily shot, duck, seldom met with unless on the Perak river, pigeon, very numerous in some places and principal game bird after the snipe, and the snipe himself, for whose shooting the \$5 (11s. 8d.) game licence is usually taken out. The game licence is valid throughout the Federated Malay States wherever it is issued.

Naturalists and bird collectors have to obtain a \$50 (£5 16s. 8d.) wild bird licence valid for three months. The procedure to obtain this is the same as that for the big game licence, *mutatis mutandis*, but the wild birds licence is valid throughout the Federated Malay States wherever issued.

The shooting of female elephants (penalty \$500 = £58 6s. 8d.), female sambhur deer (penalty \$100 = £11 13s. 4d.), immature big game (penalty \$200 = £23 6s. 8d.), immature deer (penalty \$100 = £11 13s. 4d.) is strictly forbidden, as is shooting big game without licence (penalty \$500 = £58 6s. 8d.) and shooting game birds or wild birds without licence (penalty \$5 = 11s. 8d. a bird), and it should be carefully remembered that anyone who shoots any big game must make a return to the Resident showing his bag (penalty \$50 = £5 16s. 8d.). If the traveller observes the above instructions he is not likely to commit any offence against the game laws.

There is no Customs duty on arms or ammunition.

Pigeon shooting (the little green fruit-

Pigeon. eating pigeon called *punai* in Malay)

has been much spoiled of recent years by the extensive felling of jungle to plant rubber, but there are still many places where the birds flight regularly. The flights seem to depend a good deal on the weather, but they always take place in the afternoon. On bright days when there has been no rain and the sun is getting low in the West, the pigeon make up their minds about four or five in the

afternoon to leave the upland forests and roost on the edge of the mangrove. At this hour one hears in the distance the chuckling laugh of the *punai* as he flutters from tree to tree, unable to make up his mind to go to bed. But when he finally decides, he is a bird of very high courage. Launching himself into the air from the thick covert of a jungle a mile away, he sets forth on his blockade-running, and nothing in the world can stop him. You with your gun are between him and his roosting places. You are probably concealed as far as possible behind a tree trunk or a bush or some aptly placed native hut. The *punai*, plainly regardless of you with your gun, flies straight towards you. At first you do not make him out in the bright distance: Perhaps for half an hour you have strained your vision with a passionate intensity towards the distant jungle tops, so that at length a beetle three yards from you is mistaken for a pigeon, and a bee-eater aeroplaning in the middle distance makes you grip your gun in an agony of apprehension. But suddenly you pick up a bunch of unmistakable pigeon flying, it may be, dead straight on to you. Unless you know your ground well and, more especially, are accustomed to judging distances and elevations in this bright air of the tropics, you cannot tell whether he will hit you in the chest or pass high over your head. Some birds fly low, so that you can hardly make them out against the dark background, some swerve, others fly high and you cannot judge whether or no they will change direction or elevation or pass within shot. But, however flying, they come

at a terrible pace. There is no rule for shooting *punai* except shoot straight, hold well forward and take them before they pass you. The ideal spot for shooting these birds is some place on a coast road where you stand on the road and can drop your birds in the open, and it is also highly advisable to have a long clear outlook in front of you. In some places the birds have to be taken as they cross an opening in the sky between two banks of high mangrove. You do not see them coming. All you see is the bird arrived, whizzing across those few feet of space in those few instants of time. The coast roads at Matang, Teluk Anson, Kuala Selangor, Klang and Jugra are all good places for pigeon, and anywhere on the West Coast it is worth while enquiring whether the birds are fighting and what are the best places. Some men hold to No. 5, some to No. 7, and some prefer No. 8 shot. The best all-round number for shot, whether for snipe or pigeon, is probably No. 7. But whatever shot you put into him—or behind him—you will confess, once you have shot at him, that the *punai* is a sporting bird, and you will be quite surprised to find how much worse a shot you are than you believed yourself to be.

Snipe arrive in the Peninsula at the earliest towards the end of August, when a few birds are usually to be seen; they come in quantities in September and October, are at their best for shooting in November and December, and gradually decline in numbers until May, when they all seem to have migrated back to their breeding grounds in the North of

Asia. Every year a heavy toll of them is taken by shooters without any visible diminution of the supply, and it is especially curious to note how if a bird be shot in a definite spot, that spot will have another snipe in it next day, and so on until the end of the season. Those who have the good fortune to live in a snipe area grow perfectly familiar with these spots and will find birds in a district where a stranger might walk for hours and only discover birds by accident. But in districts where they are very plentiful, as in Krian, one has only to walk about to find them in quantities. The best one-day bag was made in 1893 by five guns and was 609 birds, of which Mr. F. J. Weld of the Civil Service contributed 101½ couple and Mr. E. W. Birch, afterwards British Resident of Perak, shot 89½ couple, the other three guns getting 113½ couple between them. This party shot between Bagan Serai and Simpang Lima. They started to shoot at 7.45 a.m., stopped for a full hour and a half in the middle of the day and then shot till 5.35 p.m. when they ran out of cartridges. Had they had more cartridges they could easily have got another twenty couple or so before dark for there were plenty of birds about. The feat set forth above, however, records something more than the mere firing of straight powder. It entailed the severest kind of hard walking in water and mud, under a tropical sun, and is evidence as much of the endurance of the shooters as of their skill in gunnery.

The best equipment for snipe shooting is a pair of light boots, which will not pinch the feet when

soaked, putties, loose fitting, very light khaki coat and breeches, a shirt, and a broad solar topee with a khaki cover. As snipe shooting for any length of time is very severe exercise, an immediate bath and change of clothes at the conclusion of shooting is most essential, whether for comfort or health, and any tight-fitting garments or high collars should be avoided.

Recently the irrigation water has to some extent spoiled the Krian snipe shooting, as it covers the fields to a depth beyond the reach of a snipe's bill. But large bags are still possible, and this ground is probably the best snipe shooting area in the world. The birds are found when the rice is but newly planted—it is not sown broadcast, but planted out from a nursery—and the ground is not too wet or too dry for the snipe to feed. The youthful part of the population, both Tamil and Malay, near Bagan Serai and Parit Buntar, is always available to follow the shooter and retrieve the birds, which are walked up and shot without the aid of dogs. Boys will follow a gun through the day for a wage of 40 cents (about 1s.) each.

Our travellers find this by common experience ;
Health. when they come in far countries and use their diet, they are suddenly offended ; as our
Hollanders and Englishmen when they touch upon . . .
those Indian capes and islands are commonly molested with calentures, fluxes, and much distempered by reason of their fruits.

Burton. Anat. Melan.

It is to be hoped that our modern travellers, with a few hundred years more wisdom available than those who first touched upon the Malay capes and islands, will not be so readily or so suddenly offended, for,

with care, there is no reason why they should be. As there is nothing to be gained by pretending that people never fall ill in Malaya, or suggesting that a traveller can live carelessly with impunity, it will be as well to offer a few hints as to the diseases which, after all, you will probably never catch. Probably malaria, which the old navigators called the calenture, has the most evil pre-eminence. If you want a really good life-like account of a fever-stricken country, you should read the description of "Eden" in "Martin Chuzzlewit." When you have read it, remember that though malaria is the most common disease in Malaya, it does not follow that the whole country is like "Eden." We have had our "Edens" in Malaya, Port Swettenham having been one of them, but of late years scientific discoveries have conclusively proved that malaria is communicated to man through the bite of a mosquito, and of one particular kind of mosquito, the anopheline, and of these only certain species carry malaria. This has led to the expenditure of a great deal of money on drainage and filling, with the result that if the casual visitor suffers from fever it will be because he has been careless about his mosquito net. In times now happily past the whole world regarded malarial fever as a disease for whose prime cause there was no cure. It has been known for centuries that "Peruvian bark" (quinine) was a drug which cured attacks of the disease, but nothing was known of the causes of the disease itself. It is not, therefore, strange that it was regarded, in the countries where it was a scourge,

with utter hopelessness, excellently described by M. R. de la Blanchère, as follows :—

Qui peut lutter contre la fièvre ? Il faut n'avoir jamais senti le froid profond dont elle vous enveloppe, l'abattement étrange où elle jette les plus braves, la faiblesse, le dégoût général, la misère intérieure qu'elle laisse après elle, pour croire que, de gaieté de cœur, des hommes ont pu s'y exposer. Le fiévreux, au moment de l'accès, est retranché de l'existence ; il ne lèverait pas un doigt pour écarter la mort de lui, viendrait-elle sous la figure d'un train, du feu, d'une bête féroce. Ensuite, sous le coup d'accès nouveaux, ou attendant leur venue périodique, sans appétit, trouvant le vin mauvais, le pain pâteux, les viandes amères, il languit parfois des années s'il ne peut changer de climat. Puis le cachexie s'établit, le foie s'engorge, la rate gonfle, le cœur se distend, le teint est jaune, le ventre énorme, tant qu'un jour une fièvre pernicieuse enlève l'homme en quelques heures, s'il n'est pas mort plus lentement de souffrance et de consommation. En pays malarique, tout est fièvre ; malaise, blessures, accidents, maladies de toute nature se compliquent de cet élément ; elles le trouvent maître de l'organisme, ou l'y éveillent, ou l'y laissent. La fièvre de malaria est un véritable Proteus, elle revêt toutes les formes, elle attaque de mille façons. Tantôt brutale, soudaine, ou même instantanée, elle foudroie ; j'ai vu des malheureux tomber dans le sillon, mourants, au milieu même de leur besogne ; tantôt elle s'insinue doucement, d'abord éphémère, puis fréquente, irrégulière comme incertaine, puis tierce ou quarte, puis prenant une périodicité à longs termes. Alors elle ne quitte plus

son homme ; pendant trois ans tout les vingt jours, j'ai eu une semaine de fièvre. Si pleinement, si douloureusement, que l'étranger l'expérimente, il la ne connaît pas dans toute sa cruauté. . . . Anémique, hypersplénique, bilieux, les reins à demi atrophies ou hypertrophiés, au contraire, les poumons désorganisés, les muscles flasques et mal nourris, le sang chargé d'un pigment noir qui empâte tous les viscères, il n'est plus à recevoir le miasme ; il offre un terrain préparé, véritable milieu de culture ; il est saisi presque en naissant. Son facies n'est pas encourageant pour les travailleurs de campagne qui, descendu des Montagnes Samnites, viennent labourer ou moissonner les champs du Vélitame ou de l'Atiate tristes champs où, comme dit le poète—

*Tra è solchi rei de la Saturnia terra
Cresce perenne una virtù funesta,
Che si chiama la Morte.*

This description has been praised by Professor Sir William Osler as a graphic, first-hand and not over-drawn picture, and anyone who has had the ill-luck to suffer from the recurrent forms of malaria will heartily agree with him. As the farmer sets up a scarecrow in his fields to frighten the rooks so is this picture of malaria here exhibited to scare off the traveller from the follies of despising malaria, not believing in "the mosquito theory," getting fever and then returning to tell all his friends that the Malay States are hot-beds of malaria. He will be wiser to adopt—and he can do it quite unobtrusively, without parading his scientific knowledge or appearing at all unusual—the personal prophylactic precautions

which are habitually observed by Europeans in Malaya. These precautions are described by Sir Ronald Ross as follows :—

1. *The habitual use of mosquito nets.*
2. *The occasional use of quinine.*
3. *Use punkahs or electric fans as much as possible.*
4. *Avoid sleeping in the houses of natives or near native villages as much as possible.*

With regard to the mosquito net he adds :—The first care of the resident in the tropics, of the traveller, the sportsman, the soldier, the miner, the clerk, should be for his mosquito net. Wherever he lives, wherever he goes, he should see that his mosquito net is with him, that it is in good order, and that it is properly arranged at bedtime.

A person proceeding to the tropics should always take a net with him. If he lands without one, he may acquire a deadly infection the very first night he sleeps ashore.

If your house is near a native location, or if you are a traveller and are forced to sleep in a hotel, or in the house of a native, or near a native village, redouble your precautions. It is just in such places that infected mosquitoes most abound.

But it is not enough merely to use a mosquito net—it must be used properly. The following rules should always be attended to :—

Not a single rent or hole in the net should be allowed ; if there is one, mosquitoes are sure to find it out and enter during the night.

The net should be so carefully tucked in under the

mattress, or otherwise disposed, that no aperture is left under it.

The mesh should be not much larger than the head of a pin.

When in use the net should be stretched as tightly as possible in all directions, so as to permit every breath of air—so necessary to the comfort of the sleeper in the tropics—to blow through.

Have no entrance in the net: but, when entering, lift the lower edge as little as possible and slip in with a twisting movement, so as to exclude stray mosquitoes which may have been hovering round you outside.

Instruct servants to hang the net before dark, and to see that there are no mosquitoes inside it. If mosquitoes are found inside it in the morning it is due simply to carelessness.

If the bed is furnished with a square frame for the net, hang the latter inside the frame and tuck it under the mattress. Do not place it outside the frame and let it hang to the ground.

With regard to quinine, most people omit to dose themselves with it until they suffer from malaria. As Sir Ronald Ross says:—

The objection to quinine is that it is apt to upset the digestion and to cause singing in the ears and even deafness. Considering the large degree of protection which can be obtained simply from mosquito nets and punkahs, I do not, therefore, generally advise the habitual use of quinine in malarious places, unless perhaps the reader is one of those persons with whom quinine agrees well.

I do advise the reader, however, to take it as a preventive under the following circumstances :—

1. *If he is forced to live in a house where there are, or lately have been, many cases of malaria ; or in the house of a native ; or in or very near a native village—even if he uses a net with all care.*

2. *If he is forced to do without a net, or if he has been much bitten by mosquitoes in spite of his net.*

Many methods of taking quinine as a preventive have been suggested. I recommend five grains daily just before breakfast : with a dose of ten grains, instead of the five grains, twice a week. This should be continued for a month and then gradually reduced after leaving the exceptionally malarious place, a strong dose being taken occasionally. If the reader has been much bitten by anopheles, I advise him to take ten grains daily for a fortnight, and then fall back on smaller doses.

If large doses cannot be endured, it is, in my opinion, better to fall back on smaller ones, and to double other precautions, rather than to keep oneself in chronic ill-health in consequence of the drug.

For myself, I rely mostly upon mosquito nets.

All these hints and directions may at first seem overdone. That is only because they are new to you. If anyone told you in England that to get your feet wet and sit in wet boots is to give yourself a chill, that to drink alcohol to excess will give you a headache, or any other well-known proved obnoxiousness of health, you would agree with him, because you were in England and were familiar with such little

commonplace points. But here you are not in England, and it is precisely because you are not familiar with these little commonplace aids to the preservation of health in the tropics that they have been so plainly set forth. If after reading them you decide to neglect them or to substitute for them the dicta of some one who has "been thirty years in the country, Sir, and don't believe in the mosquito theory," then you are liable and likely to get fever, but — don't blame the Federated Malay States. Allusion has been made to bowel diseases, and precautions suggested elsewhere.

Planting. In some coasts again, one tree yields them
coconuts, meat and drink, fire, fuel, apparel
with his leaves, oil, vinegar, cover for
houses, etc. *Burton. Anat. Melan.*

"The Indian's nut alone
Is clothing, meat and trencher, drink and can,
Boat, cable, sail and needle, all in one."
G. Herbert.

"Annihilating all that's made
To a green thought in a green shade."
A. Marvell.

"Fortunatus et ille deos qui novit agrestes."
Virgil.

Come and let us spend a day together on one of those great estates, their trees so orderly, set so differently from the sixes and sevens cultivation of the pococurante Malay. You must be up early. The first call of Ungka in the forest should find you up. He is a *Hylobates* characterised by this scientific name as "going on the woods" and sometimes he is

called Wah-wah, a bad alliteration of the sound he makes as he goes hooping and holloaing through the jungles. Hoo-ah, hoo-ah, hoo-ah, ho-oo-oo-ee, up and down the scale, sad and sorry, mad and merry, he sings melancholy inexpressible, or happiness inconceivable, rioting in sound.

In the earliest of the morning before day awakes, when the argus pheasant has ceased his "ku-au, ku-au," but no birds yet sing, Ungka calls his pack together and they chase along the topmost runways of the jungle, joying to be alive. The air is chill. For a moment you feel like drawing up the blanket and turning round for just a slight snooze, but a movement next door from your planter host shames you into activity. A Malay at this hour of the morning will shudder out to the well, draped in a sarong, and douche himself with cold water. Your bath-room is ready, but probably you decide that bathing can wait till you come in hot and thirsty and tired from a long walk round the estate. So to first breakfast, with what appetite you may, at such an early hour. Breakfast over, and the meal does not take much time, your host hands you a long Malacca cane, two joints and a length between, somewhat after the nature of an alpenstock, arms himself with another and you start forth. This morning you are to take the coconuts first, across the river. They used to wade it, but nowadays what with the large area of coconuts in bearing and the high price of rubber they have felt able to put up a bridge. You are called upon to admire design and structure, and

do in fact admire the stability of the granite piers, cemented of stone from the river bed, and the heavy timbering. Close under the mountains you can hardly have too strong a bridge, for the river comes down in spate very heavily. Just below the bridge it has carried away several coconut trees, after undermining the bank, and the butts of them still cumber the stream. Observe, however, that each has been beheaded, and remember that the head of the coconut palm, like those of the *pinang* and the *nibong* palm, contains an excellent vegetable called *umbut*, a notable ingredient in pickles and curry accessories, but too costly for human nature's daily food, since to provide it a coconut tree, worth a sovereign perhaps, must die. Beyond the river lies a field of coconut trees all set in marshalled ranks. The coolies are there before you and so are the buffaloes and the ploughs. A gang with hoes is hacking at the few slight traces of the *lalang* grass. The buffaloes are ploughing long furrows between the trees. They began with native ploughs here, but have now taken to English ones. The buffaloes have no use for light-skinned people and snort alarmingly at your approach. Give them a wide berth. They are kittle cattle and the ploughman is skilled to use any excuse provided by his beasts for doing less work. Over wide spaces you wander, looking down avenue after avenue, aisle after aisle, of coconut trunks. But your host keeps an eye lifting to the tops of the trees. He will note a palm whose last spread frond has a triangular piece curiously cut out. The beetle

did that whilst the leaf was still curled in the head of the palm. The beetle is not the only enemy either. That round hole in the big nut just above you was made by a squirrel. He is just as fond of coconut as most people, and every year the estate declares war against him, shooting him by hundreds, pursuing him even off the estate into the Malay kampongs, until he is read a lesson which lasts just about as long as the punitive expedition does, for directly all the coco-haunting squirrels are killed, their jungle-dwelling relatives "give the Gods a thankful sacrifice," say good-bye to the forest and come to live on the estate. Squirrels, beetles, rats, estate coolies, and fly-by-night pilferers from outside account for a sensible proportion of nuts. Yet the estate gathered last year 359,827 nuts from 248 acres and made 65 tons of copra, and it is not such a very big place as such estates go. Tramping along for an hour, covering as much ground as possible, brings you at last to the store. Here the copra, the flesh inside the nut, is being spread in the sun on sacks to dry. If this nice sunny weather holds it should be fine merchantable sun-dried quality. The manner of preparation is simple. You saw the coolies just now picking. They reared a single bamboo, with steps sticking out from it, up against a palm, which it embraced with two arms whipped on to its top end. The cooly—his ancestors have done nothing but pick coconuts in India for untold thousands of years, so he has some little hereditary skill at it—walks up the bamboo like a

gigantic insect up a stalk, and if, standing on one foot on the end of the bamboo, he cannot reach the heavy clusters of nuts, he slips first one and then the other foot into a circle of rattan, embraces the trunk with his arms and moves up the tree with a succession of leg grips and arm grips. Arrived within cutting reach of the nuts he selects his bunch, gives a few cuts, and bump come half-a-dozen, bouncing in all directions as they touch the ground. Occasionally you see him shake a nut to hear whether, from the wash of the water inside, it is ripe, but usually he judges by the eye. He works by task, and must bring down 400 in a day. The fallen nuts, of which an average one weighs some seven or eight pounds, and is twice as big as your head, are collected by a bullock cart—the bullocks bred on the estate, mark you, for this place is essentially self-supporting—and brought to a heap where yet another expert husks them. He stands over a long steel sword firmly fixed in the ground. Taking a coconut from the heap with both hands he poises it above the point, jams it on the steel, wrenches it sideways, and so stabs and stabs until six rapid movements leave the nut in his hands and the husk at his feet. There is the coconut of commerce, and there also is the husk or coir on which you wipe your feet in mats. The divorce between the two is irremediable, and so suddenly made by this skilled Indian as to be startling. Somehow, you had quite forgotten the coconut of the grocer's shop. At present no use is made of the coir except for fuel in coconut drying kilns. The husked nuts are



KLEINGROTH, *Photographer.*

SPLIT COCONUTS DRYING FOR COPRA

again collected and split open, that large wet patch, near the track, marking the spilling of the "milk" in the nuts. Then the two separate pieces are laid in the sun, and in no long time the flesh, drying, separates from the shell, leaving this in two cups. These cups are used on another part of the estate to collect rubber juice, and some are sold off the estate for the same purpose. Shells badly split and not making good cups go to join the husk as fuel for the kiln. If the day belies the promise of its bright morning, the copra will be hastily brought in and placed on the kiln to dry. As it dries it gives off a smell compounded of fresh baked bread and patchouli scent. Place it in your collection of Malayan smells, for it is distinctive.

By this time the sun is beginning to feel its power and you are thirsty. So the two of you sit down beneath a coconut tree whilst a cooly deftly chops off the ends of a couple of young and unhusked nuts and offers one to you. He takes less than a minute to slice off the end of the nut. It would take you ten, and then you would probably have forfeited a finger as well. All these people are experts in some simple thing which you could not do, and a foolish envy rises in you. The nut weighs six pounds perhaps. Take it in both hands, raise it above your head, apply your lips to the orifice, after the ancient manner of the sucker of eggs, and let the cool, sweet yet sub-acid water quench your thirst. There is no better drink in all Malaya. Some people drop whisky into the nut and drink the sophisticated compound. People

who like that kind of thing, that is the kind of thing they like.

If you have really accompanied your host on his rounds as distinct from being shown round the estate you will be, at about 9 a.m., ready for another meal, and happy to get back to the bungalow for it. But your host's day is far from over, and after this second breakfast he sallies forth again, you and the big stick with him. This time you are off to the new clearing. A few minutes' walk and you reach it. Your heart sinks. Are you really expected to clamber over that hill-face amongst the burnt wood and charred timbers? Indeed you are. The long Malacca cane helps you. Leaning on it, using it as a balancing-pole, you thread a devious way under some fallen fire-scarred giant of the forest, lying prone on the hillside, and then along the trunk of another. Your planter host, who does this sort of thing several times in a week, strides ahead, selecting with the expert's eye the easiest path, making the best use of the logs, crawling, climbing, sliding, recking not at all of the burnt ash which blackens the grasping hand. Those nightmares where you balance amongst razor blades are nothing to an everyday walk across a patch of felled burnt timber. A very little of this kind of thing sews you up and you wish that it were not the way here to fell and burn the timber before planting, or at least that they would wait to plant until the logs had rotted out. But the swift system of axe and fire and rubber planting almost before the ashes are cold was not made for comfortable strollers and you must take it as it comes. Sweat



KLEINGROTHE, *Photographer.*

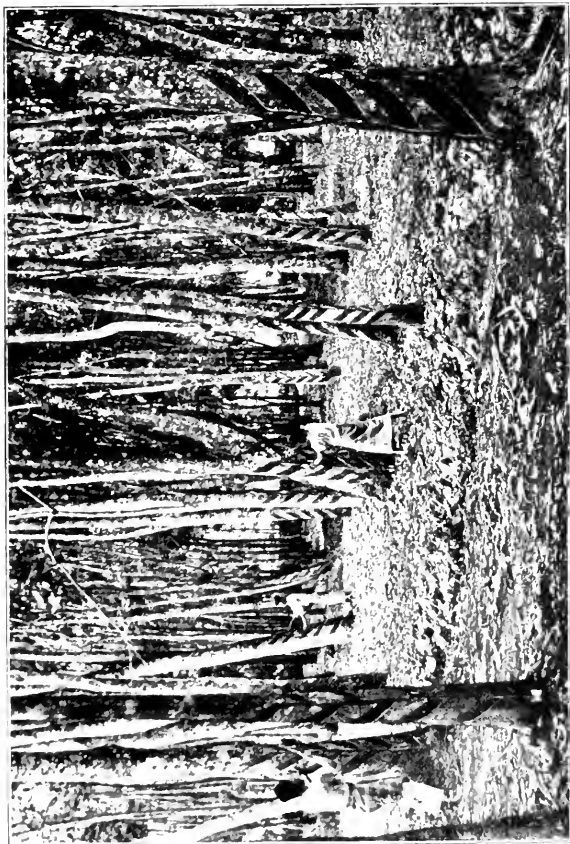
BURNING OFF FELLED JUNGLE PREPARATORY
TO PLANTING.

streams from off you ; you break a thousand legs and disembowel yourself a hundred times in imagination before you reach the end of the clearing, and are rather surprised to hear your friend lamenting the imperfection of the burn. To your eye it seemed all burn, or at least everything had been scorched, but he explains that had the fire been more intense, the felled timber less rained upon after felling and the wind more kindling in effect, the coolies you saw collecting and stacking the small timber would have worked twice as quick over the clearing.

It is a relief to find yourself amongst the rubber trees and their cool shade. Upstart cultivation though it be as compared with coconuts, rubber has made enormous strides of late years and in every district are large estates. In the burnt clearing you have left is seen the beginning of the cultivation. Here the little slim Para rubber plants are planted out amongst the rotting timbers of the forest primeval. Originally sown as seed all together in a patch of cleared land, they have rushed up through the soil with that endearing willingness to be good and grow quickly for which the planter loves them. At three or four feet high they are ready for transplanting, and each is carefully dug up, carried from the nursery to its prepared hole in the clearing, and left to the rapid development of a thoroughly happy tree. The rubber came originally from the other side of the world, from Brazil in South America, but it took to Malaya at once, and had it not been that coffee was before it in Malaya more attention would have been given it earlier. But Malaya

made up for lost time and planted, planted, planted rubber with an almost feverish activity. The tree itself is of a picturesque habit, leafy and very green, with a scented flower of the true tropical sweetness, adding a new but not quite a strange perfume to the innumerable sweet scents of the country. As you are not concerned with it merely as a money-maker you note the delicately pretty patterns of grayish bark splashed with patches of bright yellow mosses and decked with gleams of sunlight. But, after all, rubber is worth so much a pound, and the winning of it is interesting. So you turn to watch yet another expert. Perhaps you are by this time too late, for tapping is done in the early morning, and all you see is coolies going round, emptying into large tins the bright white juice or latex from the little cups at the foot of the trees. But for your edification a tree is tapped. Estates have their fancies in knives, but probably the ordinary farrier's knife is most employed. Down the trunk of the tree runs a pattern of cuts. The knife is laid on, and slowly, carefully bearing on it, the tapper shaves off just a little slice of bark. At once the white latex oozes forth and as cut after cut is reopened the tree yields a stream of latex which runs down the backbone cut to a little open spout of tin fixed into the bark near the ground. Thence it drips into a little cup, which may be a cigarette tin or some patent receptacle, or a china cup, or a coconut shell—anything indeed which is cheap and of the proper size.

The liquid rubber so collected is carried off to the store, and there coagulates in large receptacles. Later it is taken out of these, the surplus water



KLEINGROTH, *Photographer.*

PARA RUBBER PLANTATION. 12 AND 15-YEAR-OLD TREES.



Photo by C. W. HARRISON.

PATH THROUGH A PEPPER PLANTATION

expressed by machinery and the resulting sheet left to smoke and dry. When dry, it is packed in boxes and shipped to Western markets.

In a few short years this rubber growing has become a vast industry in the Federated Malay States—everyone plants it. Malays in the kampongs, Chinese amongst their vegetables, Tamils round their houses, Englishmen on their estates, and everywhere a very modicum of attention and freedom from choking natural growths turns this foreigner of a plant into a tree as lusty and strong as any of those native to the jungle. All soils seem to suit it, some, of course, better than others, and it has wonderfully few enemies at present. White ants, certain fungus diseases, storms and careless tapping are the only things which it fears.

Both the Government and the planters are aware that it is desirable to introduce new economic agricultural products likely to do well in Malaya, and experimental cultivation of these is continually proceeding. Some cereals such as ragi are already established as foodstuff crops, and the African oil-palm is being tried. If it takes to the country, this palm may some day dispute with rubber the supremacy of Malaya.

The fashionable rubber monopolises attention, but before its hundreds per cent. dividends pleasantly startled the planting world of the tropics, coffee was the staple product of the English planter. Most of that has been cut out now in favour of Para rubber. Tea has never been a success, though it had been tried on the hills, and tobacco finds the climate too moist and too uncertainly wet. Pepper is often grown.

Food in Malaya consists of very much the same dishes as those obtainable in the Western civilised World, but there are a few things which are best avoided altogether. Of these uncooked vegetables are the most to be shunned. That delight in warm climates—the salad, in all its forms—is dangerous in the East for you cannot be certain whether the water which washed it was pure or the methods of the grower entirely beyond sanitary suspicion. Another frequent cause of sudden offendings is the Malay curry eaten without understanding. This dish, for those who like spiced meats, is a joy, but like other violent delights it is apt to have violent ends, and it should be eaten with strict moderation. Particularly should one shun the little dried prawns which appear so innocently amongst the *sambals* or little side dishes which accompany the main dish of curried fowl. They have been known to set up a poisoning which may be ptomaine or may be merely a form of shell-fish poisoning, but whatever it be it is exceedingly painful, often dangerous, and has been before now fatal. Surfeits of tropical fruit may be responsible for much discomfort. Milk unboiled is, for a certainty, mixed with water, and the water, for a probability, mixed with typhoid. Water is safe enough usually if it comes from a pipe supply, but in no country is unboiled water above suspicion, and it is not recommended as a beverage in Malaya. The commonest drink is whisky and soda taken very mild. Most people avoid pork, for though scavenging is done otherwise than by the pig, still it is notorious that a pig will eat anything, and what your particular

pig has eaten you do not know until it hits you. The large fresh pink prawn, with its leafy bed of salad and its mayonnaise sauce, is frequently best admired rather than consumed, unless you are sure that your constitution is prawn-proof. Tinned meats are all very well, but fresh are better where obtainable. The chance-bought tin which has been reposing for months or years in a shop, and was originally stocked by some small shopkeeper in a remote village from a clearance sale in a large town, has an unappetising history. He will be well advised who in hotels and resthouses prefers even the skinniest of chickens to even the best brands of tinned meats. Sea fish up-country, brought long distances over ice, is no more likely to be fresh in the tropics than elsewhere.

It is not intended absolutely to condemn all these foods, but to warn the traveller that unless he is careful he may find that they prove refractory to his powers of assimilation. Happily for him it is certainly the fact that, for the first few weeks or months of a residence in or a tour through the Peninsula, there is felt a quickening of all the powers of the body and a sense of well-being which may be due either to the tropical climate itself or to the mere change of life.

Curios. The Malaya of the present day, not being accustomed to travellers for pleasure, offers to the tourist passing through very little in the curio line, and such as there is of the kind has to be hunted up. The country produces no gems and no relics of antiquity and its

Malay craftsmen are of no high order of merit. There is, however, a good deal of Malay silver still remaining in remote kampongs whence it is occasionally brought and sold to the foreigner, probably to pay for some extravagance of the rising generation, a use to which family plate is put in other lands as well. Of this silver there are many specimens in the museum at Taiping and also at Kuala Lumpur. It is quite characteristic and unique and seems to owe its inspiration to no other nation. A great deal is nowadays fabricated by Chinese and sold as Malay work. Besides the silver work there is the niello ware, or *jadam*, of which a really good piece is always a handsome possession. This *jadam* is the fashion in Rembau, where the women wear large belt-buckles of it called *pinding*, but it is also made in boxes of all shapes. It may be of silver or of brass filled with enamel.

As is natural in a country where there is such a riot of vegetable life, the people are very clever at working baskets and mats of various fibres. The authorities on baskets are of opinion that the Malayan work is the best in the world and, to judge by the beautiful specimens one sees put to the most ordinary uses, this seems probable. Nests of basket boxes are a product of Malacca. At the resthouse there three or four old Malay women will solemnly enter the verandah and silently lay out baskets, and yet baskets, and again more baskets for your consideration. They will not importune you to buy—importunity is still considered bad manners in Malaya—but they will suggest that you now have the opportunity and



KIEING-GIHI, *Photographer.*

FICUS ELASTICA (GETAH RAMBONG), A NATIVE RUBBER TREE.

you will feel quite rude if you do not. This method of trading is far more pleasant for the purchaser than the "What d'ye lack?" "Buy, buy, buy," and "I showing Master very first-class stone, cheap," with which travellers are pestered elsewhere.

Some time ago an industry was started in a very modest way at Port Dickson in the manufacture of hats. It was very successful. Everyone wanted a Port Dickson hat, and still wants one, and quite a trade has grown up. These hats are made out of the leaves of the *mengkuan* palm (as are the grass mats so common in Malaya) from patterns of English hats. The rise of this industry has had what the Western moralist considers a disastrous effect on the Malay population of Port Dickson, whose young men nowadays do nothing but exist beautifully arrayed like the flowers of the field, whilst the womenfolk delicately manipulate hats, from the profits providing their men with the latest luxuries in the way of bicycles, cigarettes and all the materials for a *dolce far niente* existence. Thus do we do good by stealth and blush to find it harm. But as a matter of fact no great harm has been done. If they merely exist beautifully now, the odds are that they existed squalidly before, and in their philosophy no one is the worse for being happier. The Port Dickson hats vary a great deal. Some are what the Malays call *jarang*, full of holes and badly plaited, and others almost as well woven and shaped as a panama. They will fold into a small compass without breaking the fabric.

The "cursed Malayan kris" (this is the modern way of transliterating and not so pleasing as "quaryx")

which is much more faithful to the true sound) can be bought almost anywhere. But a really good kris is hard to come by, since such weapons are family heirlooms. There are innumerable varieties, short, long, straight, curved, of this most ornamental of all weapons. There is a deep lore of the blade of the kris. The number of its waves, the quality and the number of the laminations of the steel, its length measured by the second joint of a Malay's forefinger, the curious carving of the handle, the traditions attaching to the blade and notably the ornamentation of the sheath, are all serious matters to a real Malay with a real kris. Whether real crises, by which are meant weapons once in real use or really ready for use, are often offered to the European nowadays may be much doubted, but there are many well worth buying for their intrinsic artistry alone. Such a one is the waved kris, nicely tapered, fairly laminated, with a cup of silver, delicately chased, protecting a handle in ivory carved in the shape of a bird with arms, the sheath of polished ruddy wood, banded with silver, and the sheath's head of shining satin wood somewhat elaborately turned and raking at the proper angle.

This weapon, designed to inflict a hideous close quarters wound, is a very different affair to the *sumpit*, the long blow-pipe of the aboriginal Sakei, which delivers a little dart of wood, tipped with poison, from a distance. With the blow-pipe goes the bamboo quiver, rotan-bound, in which repose the poisoned darts. The blow-pipe and its quiver usually show a certain amount of artistic skill in their orna-

mentation with patterns burnt in the wood. Some of the darts sold are really poisoned, so that it is just as well not to prick a finger with one.

In the ordinary Chinese shop in the towns is to be found a china which is not procurable even in London, for the reason that it is so cheap as not to be worth importation. A few cents will buy you the little blue and white spoons such as the Chinese cooly uses, and a dollar will purchase handfuls of curious crockery, the like of which you will never see at home. It is all very primitive stuff, made in China for the Chinese, not for the European market, but has a charm of its own and an engaging simplicity of colouring which appeals.

But quite the best places to rummage are the second-hand shops, which buy from the pawnshops, and the *pajak lelap*, as the Malays call it, "the drowsy pawnshop" itself, where the pledged things sleep out their time until their tickets expire and they are exposed for sale to recover the money advanced. Here one may expect to find a silk sarong or baju of gorgeous hue, pledged by some Malay who knew a good sarong when he saw it ; a wicked little *tumbok lada* knife, easily concealed in a woman's hand ; a *parang* or chopping wood knife of curious pattern ; jade bracelets ; tiger's claws set in gold ; a complete set of the *Krusang* brooches in gold and rubies, as worn in the best Malay circles ; yellow diamond rings, once the pride of some Chinese *nonia*, wife of a rich man who lost all in the last slump of tin ; silver boxes of Malay ware ; anklets of silver, anklets of gold and anklets

of silver gilt; little silver plaques once the sole covering of a Malay or Tamil child; pretty filigree work gold beads forming a favourite Malay shape of necklace; earrings of all kinds, heavy Tamil earrings, stud earrings in brilliants worn by Chinese ladies, gold earrings of the different shapes affected by married and single Malay women, and these shapes varying again with the district; hair-pins of all varieties; belts of all shapes and nations; opium pipes pledged in a spasm of virtue, of ill luck at the gambling table, or of ordinary poverty; occasionally good china originally introduced by some connoisseur who fell afterwards upon evil days; brasswork from the four corners of the Orient, Japanese, Chinese, Indian, Malay; water-bottles in baked clay with silver stoppers held by silver chains—a long list yet not complete, for if ever there was a place where a farrago of rubbish and valuables is to be found it is a pawnshop in Malaya. The hunter in pawnshops can pursue his game in every little town or village, for a place must be very small not to have a pawnshop in it. At first the indifference shown by the proprietors of these shops is rather chilling. They care not whether you buy or forbear, and they care not if you know it, but with persistence, civility and a complete disregard of the passing of time you will break down this reserve and be shown all kinds of queer things wrapped up in Chinese paper. There is a fascination in this; you not knowing a word of Chinese and they not knowing a word of English, their Malay being bad and yours fragmentary, neither

party can worry the other with elaborate artifices of bargaining and cheapening. There is the curiosity you covet and there is the price in Chinese on its wrapper or its ticket. Maybe they will let it go for less, maybe they do not truthfully read to you the Chinese inscription, since "for ways that are dark and tricks that are vain the heathen Chinese is peculiar." Very unlike the pawnshop people is the Chinese boxwallah who peddles things at your door and frequents hotels. This is usually a bland person speaking several languages, extremely polite and ready to spread out the whole of his wares for your inspection. The great speciality is drawn-thread work on linen and silk embroidery. His tablecloths are a dream of dragons sprawling in white thread on a ground of native blue, and dragons clutch convulsively at some material or other all over his stock. You see them grabbing the tops of cigar boxes in tin or silver, twining themselves in knots on enamel buttons, heaving up and down on handkerchiefs, jostling each other on cigar cases, equal, for decorative value, to the French King's salamander. With the boxwallah you must bargain and he will meet you half-way, for unlike the pawnshop man, he is always anxious to sell.

The Federated Malay States are in the

Education. happy position of having plenty of schools in which Malay boys learn reading and writing in Malay, arithmetic, and reading the Arabic Koran by rote, forget it all and return to agricultural pursuits. About two per cent. stick to

book-learning and become clerks either in a Government office or in the employ of some private firm. Every little village has its school, a long tiled building on brick piers, built, to sealed pattern, with its little master's house close by. Here, unwillingly to school, with shining morning face, acquired by disporting themselves in half-a-dozen pools and streams on the way, assemble some thirty or forty brown boys, the majority of tender years and still wearing the long streamer of hair by which, if the child dies before being received, through circumcision, into Islam, he will be hauled up to heaven. In Perak there is no legislation to compel parents to send their boys to school, yet the attendance is as high as in the other States where such laws exist, and probably boys are sent to school by Malay parents for reasons which move parents elsewhere, to wit, if you do not send a boy to school what are you to do with him at home? Many of them walk several miles to reach the school, and various are the reasons which prevent them coming regularly. Sometimes a river is in flood and the bridge swept away, or perhaps there never was a bridge. At other times there is, not a lion, but a tiger in the path and children are kept at home. At some schools the way lies through jungle and children will not face its mysteries except in small parties, so it frequently happens that when the good boys start the runagates are left behind. Such excuses, however, do not avail if the way is by railway, for free tickets are given. However, in such a case, you can miss the train. Then there is that convenient disease, fever, which keeps

Malay boys at home like colds and coughs in England. The human boy is much the same all the world over. Noisy places these schools, ostentatiously noisy as you pass by or walk up the steps, for the system is to repeat everything aloud over and over again, and the louder you sound the more diligent clearly must you be. The girls' schools are quieter. There are fewer of these than of the boys' schools, and needlework is a silent pursuit. In some of the girls' schools weaving in silk is taught, but this attempt to revive an ancient industry has had little success. Girls leave school and get married at once, and what with looking after a husband and children they have no time for weaving. Moreover the whole country is and has been for years flooded with cheap cloths of all kinds, from England, India, and Japan. In Pahang they still weave sarongs, and some are produced under superintendence, bear a stamp of authenticity, and are sold through the District Officer, Pekan. In Kelantan, too, weaving in silks is an industry, but, alas, the old vegetable dyes are being neglected in favour of aniline concoctions, which do not stand washing or the sun. Malay taste in sarongs runs to violent colours. These are very well in a vegetable dye, which can originally never be very bright, and eventually fades to harmonious tints, but in an aniline dye violent colours are offensive from the beginning and nondescript at the end. It is becoming increasingly difficult to get good, silk, vegetable dye cloth for sarongs and bajus. Until purchasers begin to discriminate and cease to buy at

genuine prices spurious cloths simply because they are in divers colours, it is improbable that the decay of the weaving industry will ever be arrested or the moribund art of vegetable dyeing revived. The needlework of the Malay girls' schools is often very good. They are especially clever, as are the Chinese women, at embroidery, particularly embroidery in silk for slippers. At the Agri-Horticultural Show, held annually in August at one or other of the principal towns of the Peninsula, there is usually a good deal of needlework exhibited and sold to visitors.

Besides the Malay schools there are higher standard schools in several towns, where English is taught. These schools feed the Government's clerical service and the needs of private firms for clerks. The higher standard education of girls is chiefly in the hands of the various missionary religious establishments, which maintain several schools in each large town. The majority of the scholars in all these are non-Malay, and may be either Chinese, Indian or Eurasian. Of technical education there is at present little or none. Boys will not devote to it the necessary time since they can so readily obtain employment at early ages.

To differentiate between these four races and say whether the Malay, the Chinese, the Indian or the Eurasian is the more intelligent in a school is a speculation merely, but a considerable body of opinion inclines to the belief that the Malay boy is the brightest, and, if you can get him beyond a certain trying period, the most successful ultimately. But he is indolent by virtue of his race, and has always his

own home in the country should book-learning prove too exacting. He knows he will find there a father who is "no scholar" himself, a mother only too delighted to get her son away from the perils of a town, and around them that seductive atmosphere of kampong quiet, the coconuts, the fruit trees, the padi fields, the buffaloes, the subtle scents and sweet savours for which his soul has sickened in a town.

The Straits of Malacca divide the Malay Peninsula from the Dutch island of Sumatra, and their waters are amongst the calmest seas of the world. Into them fall a number of rivers whose source is amongst the hills of the Peninsula. These rivers run by devious courses through flats of mangrove-covered mud and are tidal for miles. In the short coast line of 395 miles between Penang and Singapore are a dozen or more such rivers, and it is no uncommon thing for each river to have several smaller streams falling into it whilst it is still in the mangrove. Consequently the mangrove forest is full of lagoons, back-waters, creeks, and little odd places where no one ever goes except the woodcutters or the fishermen. The mangrove yields an excellent firewood for which there is a large sale up country and also a bark used for tanning, especially for tanning locally the nets of the fishermen. Wood cutters and fishermen live sometimes in huts on a mangrove covered island, sometimes in villages on the firm ground up the rivers. The huts on the island are very inaccessible, being only reached by sea, but if ever the opportunity offers of getting out

to them in a launch, it should be taken, for these are some of the most curious habitations that human kind have ever made.

The houses in these amphibious villages are built on wooden stilts, piles thrust down into the mangrove mud, upon which are reared the little huts, all thatched with the *nipah* palm leaf, their sides sometimes boards but as often as not merely sticks lashed together. Their streets are slats of wood through whose interstices you may at low tide look down eight feet or more upon the bluish mangrove mud and observe the antics of the *ikan blodok*, the fat-eyed fish who squatters about above the waterline fighting his kind, executing strategic retreats to his hole in the mud and generally behaving in the fat-headed manner not out of place in one whose appearance is so notably foolish. All around and about him are the little blue crabs, the little red crabs, and eke the little black crab who with a business-like claw nips some small prey, holds it up for inspection, drops it or carefully places it in his mouth as his appetite moves him. On the mud, too, lies the debris of the village above, crockery and kitchen waste, fish and filth, all waiting for the great sanitation of next tide. In the village live the Chinese fishermen to whom belong the stake nets out at sea. These nets, if not peculiar to the Straits of Malacca, are the first of their type seen by the traveller from the West. If you are awake when your ship steams into Penang or Singapore in the chill dawn you will see, lifting and hiding in the mists, long V-shaped dark lines upon the

A COAST VILLAGE

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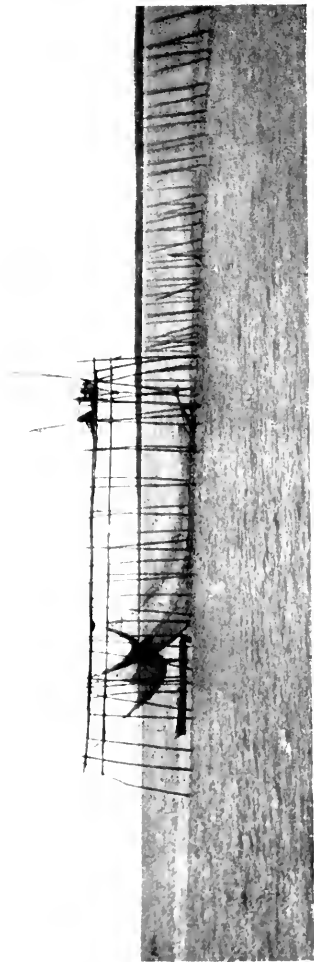
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surface of the sea whose nature you will never guess until you are close upon them. Should you first see them at noon they present themselves like a flock of sea-birds flying in the duck formation, for the shimmer of the heat upon the sea's surface makes them rise in the air upon your vision. Seen for the first time they are as mysterious as the flying islands which, down the Straits of Malacca, used by their air of strange enchantment to terrify the ancient mariner, or, if they did not terrify the ancient mariners, persons not readily terrified, then as now, terrified the ancient and gullible passengers to whom the mariners did relate many moving tales of these obviously jin-created monsters. But both the mysterious V-lines, and the mysterious flying islands are solidly set in the sea after all when you come close to them, though the eye plays you strange tricks with them at a distance. The principle of the V-shaped fishing trap is ingenious. It is one of those eminently labour-saving contrivances that simply must have been invented by a Malay, for "the malazy people" are great on such clever contraptions. The making of such a fish-trap is on this wise: you cut in the mangrove forest a large number of long poles. These you dispose in a broad **V** in the sea, at a spot where your eye or the "pawang's" magic have revealed that here is a runway of the waters much frequented by those foolish people, the fish. The long poles you so stick into the sea mud that each one waggles to and fro slightly. At the point of the **V** you set your long bag-net with its wide mouth. You then tie your boat

to one of the stakes and go to sleep. Arising refreshed from slumber you observe that the tide is nearly out, and that the poles on which the net is hung are strained to breaking with the weight of the net. With a short prayer acknowledging thanks to Him who gave the fish you haul in the net and find it full. You select such fish and such crabs as you desire ; you avoid such sea-snakes as may be amongst the fish, and you are careful not to be stung by jelly fish. The balance, being immature fish, useless little fish and various other sea-sweepings, you tip back into the sea and so home. All very simple, of course, but why are the fish so foolish as to run into a net set in the wide and broad sea? Thus: the things creeping innumerable, whether fish, or crabs, or snakes, or jelly fish, were landwards of your net when you set it. As the tide turned the great host of them followed it out to sea again. When a part of that army came on the first landward stake they shied away from it as it waggled in the water because they were afraid of it. Some shied to the outside of the V and missed your net. Others shied to the inside and were gradually shepherded to their doom by the wagging stakes on either side of the broad V, bringing up at length on the rush of the tide in the wide mouth of the net. Here few escape. Some perhaps dive, finding courage at length, and slip between net and stake, or even between two clashing stakes, but until the net is crammed or the tide ceases to run the foolish sea-people shy hurriedly from side to side of the V, and at last enter the net pell-mell. An



Sir E. L. B., photo.

FISHING STAKES AT SEA.

ingenious contrivance, indeed, and saves many a fish from being eaten by another, which is the last end of all fish that ever were, barring those devoured by man, by the sea-snakes, and by the birds of the air.

This principle of the wagging stakes set in the sea to frighten fish into a net fixed for filling by the tide is also used to bring fish into a square chamber of close-set stakes. Inside this chamber lies a net which is raised at intervals by a man above.

Of fish traps and nets there are innumerable kinds, and most people are content to eat the fish and not speculate over much on how they were caught. But the fish market in any large town is always worth visiting. Most of them nowadays have tanks in which freshwater fish are kept until they find a purchaser, and here, too, are the crabs and prawns. Flat fish, fish with whiskers, fish with a long whip for a tail, fish which puff themselves out so that you can stand on them, fish with poisonous spines, pink fish, blue fish, little fish, heavy fish, fish from the sea, from the river, from the ponds, even from far-off China, sent down as spawn to Malaya and there hatched and fed, all are represented; and if we are interested in the native ways of living, the vegetable market next door displays a collection of fruits and vegetables often foreign and strange. Most Europeans are extremely careful as to what vegetables they eat in the Malayan tropics, as the ingenious Chinese, renowned for his vegetable growing wherever he goes, owes that

**Fruits and
Vegetables.**

renown to his unpleasant practice of mulching his crops with crude sewage collected from the towns. This brings it on wonderfully, no doubt, but it brings on more than vegetables. Even if the crude sewage does not affect the consumer he is liable to several water-borne diseases if he eats raw salads and such things, for, in order to keep vegetables bright and fresh on the way to market, the gardeners douche them with water from the ditches just outside the town. This no doubt has been the practice from time immemorial, and amply accounts for travellers being "suddenly offended," not really "by reason of their fruits," but by reason of careless ignorance. The fruits are safe enough. It is curious to remark how there is no fruit in Malaya of which the outside is eaten. Every fruit is either contained in a thick shell or rind, or else its thin outside skin is inedible. Thus to get at the flesh of the fruit you have to extract it from its protection, and you find the inside perfectly free from any contamination. The thickest skinned of all the Malayan fruits is the durian. The very report of this fruit stinks nowadays in the nostrils of Europeans, so much have people written describing its smell. But it is a fruit for which Asiatics pay high prices willingly, a fruit which the tiger disputes with the pig and the bear snatches from the deer, a fruit which all domesticated animals, including horses, eat greedily, and a fruit which has charms only known to those who venture upon it boldly. But it is emphatically a fruit of the open air, not a fruit of closed chambers, and even so some little circumstance

should attend the eating. You cannot say to yourself, "Go to, I will eat a durian," and straightway eat one, and enjoy it. Rather should you prepare to encounter its ferocious charms with a due modesty and restraint, lest you be routed at the first onset. The learned—and many have made a deep study of the subject, involving the consumption of several durians at a sitting—unanimously recommend that the fruit be engaged in the open. Once let it come skulking through passages, on to verandahs, or upon dining tables, and victory will not lie with you but with the durian. Selecting therefore a season when the fruit is well in, and your olfactory nerve already somewhat dulled to sense of smell, you set forth, early in the morning, upon a pilgrimage, along almost any road in almost any district, following, in fact, your nose. The way will be strewn with happy omens in the shape of durian skins, which have been torn from around the coy pip. Their offence is rank indeed, but undeterred by them you press forward, a Childe Roland to your dark tower, and finally you come to an orchard where the majestic fruit hangs heavy on the boughs. Near it, in a little hut on stilts, sit a few Malays, expecting until a durian shall drop. This occupation is singularly congenial to the Malay temperament, and if you have had to walk any way to get to the orchard you will find it an occupation not wholly uncongenial to yours. As you take your seat and wonder what about breakfast a solemn plop in the middle distance announces the descent of a durian. A Malay strolls off and, keeping an eye lifting to the trees lest a fruit

fall upon him, picks up the durian and returns. This is the crisis. A durian comes too near which comes to be denied. Deliberate and you are lost. Let the Malays split open the fruit. When they offer you a pip, take it boldly in your fingers and eat it, in the full assurance that the earth does not produce a more kindly fruit. Yet if you must eat it in a room see well to it that the pips alone are served to you and that hunger is your sauce.

He who has experienced the fierce joys of the durian will find the jak fruit and the soursop tame in comparison. Let them be relegated to ices, puddings and such preparations, not thereby, however, condemning them, for does not the lordly durian itself condescend very graciously to make the principal ingredient in an ice? Of that delicate fruit the mangosteen, in its thick jerkin of claret colour, it skills not here to relate, for it is sure to appear and make its appeal in person. Oranges grow in the Peninsula, but not "like golden lamps in a green night," for they never take on the familiar yellow tint. Other fruit are numerous, yet, through some mysterious dispensation of hotel keepers, rarely seen at table. Of such are the duku, tasting like a grape and growing in grape-like clusters; the cliku, in appearance like a symmetrical potato, in taste like itself; the mango, a messy fruit to eat, and, if of a bad variety, tasting strongly of turpentine; the papaya, said to be excellent for the digestion, but it is the seeds which contain the pepsin, and the seeds, of course, no one ever eats; the jambu, of

various varieties, the little pink being one and perhaps the best ; the bristling rambutan ; the lime, indispensable in cocktails, slings and places where they swizzle ; and finally, omitting much in the water melon line, the pisang or banana, of which you have usually had quite enough or ever you touch at the Malay Peninsula. As the fruit harvests are perfectly irregular, some fruit is always in season and little or none is imported. Most of it comes from the Malay kampongs where the trees have grown up haphazard, and very little attention has so far been given to fruit growing for profit, the Malays merely selling what they cannot themselves eat. Of the pineapple, a fruit which grows to perfection, it was hyperbolically written : " She is indeed almost too transcendent—a delight, if not sinful, yet so like to sinning that really a tender conscientious person would do well to pause—too ravishing for mortal taste," but in recent years she has been tinned in millions and so become a commonplace everywhere.

The first thing to be borne in mind

Clothing. about getting clothing for use in the

Federated Malay States is that you can buy every single thing you can possibly want either at Penang or Ipoh or Kuala Lumpur or Singapore. It is utterly unnecessary to bring out from London a large outfit, and not only is it unnecessary but it is inadvisable. Men will find that on board ship, where they indulge in no very active exertion, they can wear their lightest English summer clothing with comfort

till Penang or Singapore is reached, though some people prefer to buy their tropical wear in Colombo. On landing at Penang or Singapore there will be no difficulty at any hotel in finding a tailor who in twenty-four hours will supply you with a dozen suits of white drill, the coat either cut as a tunic or to wear with a collar. In the nearest shop you can buy very light underwear. Canvas shoes or boots are procurable with the same startling promptitude as the clothes. In the matter of fitting out people in a hurry the Chinese tailor and Chinese bootmaker have nothing whatever to learn and they satisfy hundreds of people every year. If you have not bought a solar topi at Port Said, you should get one at Colombo, as it is not wise to put off the purchase of this, the most important article of dress for white man or white woman in the tropics. There are at least two schools of opinion as to how men should dress in the matter of underclothing in Malaya. One holds that a healthy costume is shoes, socks, drill (white or khaki) trousers, a very light and porous vest, a drill tunic and a solar topi. Another holds that short pants must be worn under the trousers and that the vest should be wool or flannel. Between the two there is probably some medium which each man will select for himself. But whatever he decide in this matter let him remember that it is almost a social crime, certainly a social misdemeanour, to wear a white linen suit two days in succession—one day one suit (and even more if one gets soiled) should be the most absolute rule, and the

same applies to undergarments. Nothing looks worse in the tropics or is nastier in itself than a soiled or crumpled linen suit, unless perhaps it be unsuitable European clothing. The question of clothing, of course, depends very much on whether any stay is being made. If one is merely going straight through in a couple of days it is hardly worth while to purchase clothes, but if it is intended to spend any time in the country white or khaki colour coats and trousers will be necessary, for the traveller will very soon discover that he cannot with comfort to himself and others perspire freely all day and every day in the same clothes. English summer clothing is worn after sundown.

The delicate question of clothing for ladies really resolves itself into the question : How much can you discard and still appear in public? But ladies should remember that Malaya is not a place where old frocks are worn, though it be a little out of the world. Light washing dresses of muslin and similar material are chiefly worn. Ladies spending only a few days in the country can get washing done quickly and so need not be provided with the numerous changes of clothes which are essential if a longer stay is made. It is rarely possible to wear any article of clothing more than once, and this is especially the case with the more intimate garments. A light coat for motoring or driving in the evenings is always useful. Boots are a better protection against mosquitoes than shoes, but shoes are preferred as lighter and cooler. Doeskin or chamois gloves are generally worn in the day time

as a protection against the sun. A white sun umbrella is almost essential, a scarlet lining to it being, according to scientific authority, the best colour to ward off sunstroke. It is also more becoming than green.

Though the railway and the motor
The Ghari. and the hired car go every whither, yet occasionally the ghari is seen for hire. This vehicle is of several distinct types. In Penang and Singapore a ghari connotes a box on four wheels. In Perak a ghari is a two-wheeled vehicle, very stoutly built, not too well sprung and still smacking strongly of the box on wheels. In Selangor and Negri Sembilan the type changes again, and a ghari is a light two-wheeled pony cart with springs. To all of them the little imported Sumatra or Java pony is common. Different varieties of this sturdy little beast are loosely called the Deli pony, but strictly Deli is the name of the Sumatra breed in particular. These ponies, if of the true Deli type, are the wonder of the equine world, and they will trot away proudly with loads which would soon break up an Australian. They are also of a marvellous endurance, and twenty-four miles in three hours under a tropical sun is sometimes accomplished by them, but over long distances one should usually reckon on their doing six miles an hour and keeping it up for hours. They will do it, too, day after day, on padi—not overmuch of it—and grass. Australian horses are not often seen in public vehicles as they will not in Malaya stand more than ten miles a day, driving day after day. Travelling in a two-wheeled ghari—the

four-wheeled ones are only in use about the towns—is very weary work, for the Englishman is, on the average, of far bigger build than the Oriental, and the Chinese or Indian designers and builders of gharis cater for the native traffic, of which there is more. The actual stowing of oneself and one's belongings in a ghari, with the pony backing into the ditch or trying to bolt along the road is a feat which calls not alone for agility but for unusual control of the temper. However, as no one, unless perhaps the hardened tourist, travels in a ghari for amusement, one makes the best of necessity with a cushion to sit on and a cushion against which to lean. At one time gharis went over the pass from Taiping to Padang Rengas, where the travellers took train, and thus they saw the beauties of the pass from the road. Now, unless in a motor, one sees it from the rail, and though the travel is more comfortable it is not in so picturesque a setting. One goes and returns by it. But there is a very pretty alternative route from Kuala Pilah to Tampin. To those without motors it means a ghari drive of 24 miles (four hours), joining the railway at Tampin and going on thence to Seremban. There is also the road between Tampin and Malacca, now superseded by the railway. This road is perhaps without rival for beauty in the whole of the Peninsula. It runs through lovely scenes and is nowhere uninteresting. To those who have motors it is well known, but the motorless folk travel to Malacca by rail, and though the views on the railway are worth seeing, they are not so fair as those to be met at every turn of the road.

**Various
Small Deer.**

The first unusual creature to attract the attention of the traveller in Malaya will probably be Chichak, the little lizard which lives on the walls and ceilings of every room in every house. He loves to intervene in an argument with his sharp "That's so !" If it were not for him there would be even larger quantities of annoying insects, for he eats nothing else, and he is gifted with a magnificent appetite. The best time to observe him is in the evening when the lights are lit, for then he sallies forth from the cracks and crannies where during the day he has hidden and feasts upon any insect not too big for him to get into his mouth. The mosquito, the swarming flying ant, and the fat-bodied moth are his staple food, but doubtless he devours other insects whose names are known only to science. The sharp barking call he gives is sometimes quite startling, but not nearly so loud or unexpected as the raucous "g-r-r-r, tok, tok, tok" of Bewak Punggor the gecko, his big brother, who is not, however, so common and is much shyer. This large gecko is more than suspected of preying upon his smaller brethren if he can catch them. Both are of an indeterminate pale buff colour, and the big lizard is of the same make and shape exactly as Chichak. But there is considerable variety of colour amongst the small lizards, depending apparently on their habits and surroundings. Thus a lizard living in a drawer or a clock case or any other very dark nook will be noticeably heavier in shade than one dwelling in a ceiling crack, and that in despite of the fact that

every time the drawer is opened or the clock wound the lizard has to flee for his life. There is another and far larger lizard, occasionally seen in gardens, Bewak or Biauak, the monitor lizard, miscalled iguana, which latter name belongs to a South American form. He is a foul-feeding beast, all sizes up to three feet long, haunting refuse heaps and fond of anything long dead, but also fond of stealing eggs and chickens, and generally an enemy of the housewife. But he is a slinking, skulking brute, and not often seen unless it be dead and trailing along a road behind a Tamil cooly, to whom he is an acceptable feast, perhaps even preferable to the diseased and several-days-dead bullock which Tamil coolies are so fond, unless prevented, of digging up and eating.

In the jungle may be seen, but chiefly in small jungle where he gets plenty of sun, the blue-green lizard with a serrated spine and a yellow throat, in which dwells his wonderful lasso of a tongue for him to dart at unlucky insects. The flying lizard is sometimes seen. He is apparently a distant relation of Chichak, the house lizard, but has a membrane stretching from each foreleg to each hindleg, and with these twain he flies or rather glides. His colour is very much that of the greyish white bark of the old coconut stump on which he may be accustomed to perch. The mechanism of his gliding apparatus is the same as that of the flying squirrel, alluded to elsewhere.

Those first cousins of the lizards, the snakes, both poisonous and harmless, are very common all over

the Peninsula, yet it is strange how very seldom one sees a snake, and stranger still how seldom people die from the effects of snake bite. Scientific opinion has it that there is something in the climate which decreases the strength of the venom of Malayan snakes. All the same, most people keep a bright look-out for snakes, especially in out of the way halting bungalows and resthouses. It is a disconcerting experience to fumble for matches in a table drawer at dusk and put your hand on a snake instead of a box of matches, yet it has happened before now—to careless people.

The multitude and variety of the insects with which one makes acquaintance merely in travelling through the Peninsula is astonishing. Among the most comical of them is the praying mantis, a green insect with long pale green wings like a parson's skirts, a triangular head furnished with teeth which it vainly tries to use on you if you pick it up, and a pair of waving forelegs with which it gesticulates solemnly if you annoy it. It has all the air of saying, "Go away, person, away, quite far off, please!" It has a very trying habit of flying wildly into a lady's hair whence it is difficult to extricate the fragile thing, for its forelegs are serrated and they catch in each individual hair. Apparently a cousin of the mantis is the green insect with broad rounded wings which simulates a leaf. But more wonderful in the way of simulation is the stick insect. These are often brushed off on to one's clothes when passing through jungle on an elephant. The Malays believe that elephants are much afraid of these insects, and

certainly they are so uncanny that an elephant might be excused for disliking them. They simulate, with photographic accuracy, dead twigs, and like the twigs themselves they are of all sizes, from an insect nine inches long to one an inch or less. When disturbed they simulate yet more and pretend to be dead, thereby increasing, if it be possible, their stiff stick-like appearance.

Amongst destructive insects for which it is advisable to keep a sharp look-out may be mentioned the silver fish, a fish-shaped silvery creature which devours books when neglected, that world-dweller the cockroach or blackbeetle, and, lastly, that great enemy of all the works of man's hands in the tropics, the *termes gestroi*, or white ant, a worker in darkness whose deeds are so vile that he shuns the light, eats out only the inside of anything he can get and retires before you realise that your trunk, it may be, or your most cherished books, are but empty shells. It is hardly necessary to introduce the mosquito to you. He has his own methods of making his presence known.

In this book an attempt has been made to tell you of some things to see and how to see them. But the people you, as a passing traveller, will never know (for you will not leave those beaten tracks, the railway, the road, the river), you must take on trust. There are so many of them that it is difficult to know where to begin. But perhaps the Chinese cooly, who has made this country possible for you and the

**The Chinese
Cooly.**

likes of you, deserves first mention. You will see plenty of him in the mines and in the towns, but he is in the jungle, too. You will never know him there, but think of him with his load of two bags of tin ore, one of which you could only just lift with a hand, slung at the ends of a carrying stick. He plods along a jungle path slimy in rain, ruckled with roots in drought, and wears a pair of short breeches, wet most surely with sweat, but frequently also dripping with water, either from the sheets of rain when the heavens open or from the rivers when these flood. Yet he is cheerful with it all and ready with a grin for anyone who, passing him, remarks sympathetically "*Hayah, chusah-lah.*" (Anglice—"hard work, what?") Or think of the same cooly, straddling between two foot-rests, as he drives a heavy saw down and up, down and up, through a log of timber, the sweat pouring off him, his palms smoothened in the grip, a linen loin cloth around him for decency's sake and "the muscles all a-ripple on his back." Or consider yet again his fellow, perched with five others on a foot-pump, doing the treadmill all day long in the hopes of pumping enough water from a hole in the ground to enable him to get at the tin ore down below. How would you like to lie at night in a rather leaky hut, listening to the roar of rain flooding the mine hole which at evening you had pumped dry at last, and knowing that to-morrow you must go forth to the same fruitless toil? Or the Chinese market gardener, would you care for his life? In your comfortable railway carriage or your smooth motor you

rush past his little patch of a few yards of tilled soil, which two days' neglect will cover with noxious weeds, where three hoeings will not kill the *lalang* grass, where all day long he must hack, cut, delve and sweat, as did the father of all living outside the first garden.

Against these people, all of them out of their own natural climate, do the conditions of life in the tropics continually strive. The heat is heavy on them and they know no punkah nor any electric fan. The rain is torrential and they have no spare hand for an umbrella. The sun blazes without any quality of mercy and they must affront it indifferently. Of what we know as rational pleasures they have none. Sport is unknown to them, games they play not at all. Their vices are of the coarsest, their self-indulgence is in opium, sometimes in morphia. Gambling is the recreation they prefer. They live in a barrack with a hundred others, or in a hut quite alone. You ask, why do they come here? They regard this land as the land of El Dorado. To them in their villages in China, the streets of Malaya seem paved with gold. Here they may make ten dollars a month. In China they are lucky to make two.

The whole country as you see it, the roads, the railways, the buildings, the irrigation, the mines, the fisheries—all these are built on the efforts of the Chinese cooly in his thousands and ten thousands. To the Chinese cooly and to him almost alone are due the power and the majesty and the glory derived from a huge revenue splendidly yet carefully expended by Englishmen. If everybody had his rights the

Federated Malay States would set up a monument in the most imperishable brass to a yellow-faced, snub-nosed, close-knitted Celestial, true type of that person who is not quite like anyone else in all the world—the Chinese cooly.

“Better is an handful with quietness than both the hands full with travail and vexation of spirit.”

Ecc. IV. 6.

“Sénang. Comfort, ease, peace of mind, freedom from care, and worry. Tiyada boleh sénang, sa-hari-hari ada pekerjaan. No peace was possible, I had to work every day”: *Hikayat Abdullah*.

Wilkinson's Malay Dictionary.

“Get on or get out.”

Modern Maxim.

Of the household words which are **The Malays.** continually in a Malay's mouth sénang is undoubtedly the one which calls up in his mind the most desirable things in life. To be a happy child living at home in the ancestral *kampung* is sénang, to be a proud father and loving husband is sénang, to have an assured income, as unearned as possible, is sénang, to live in a place where domestic comforts are plenty is sénang, to be close to the mosque is sénang, to go in a railway train or a motor or any vehicle is sénang, to be far from the jarring associations of other races is sénang, to be an old, ancient man, whose children look after one, and to contemplate death at one's ease, is sénang, in short to be free from travail and vexation of spirit, however and whenever that state is compassed, is sénang, and the sublimation of sénang. Is it not an extraordinary fact that there are

still in the world, in spite and in defiance of modern civilisation, people who fully, really, truly and most actually believe that peace and happiness is all that counts? To realise this, to know that a whole race of people still rejects our strenuous life and clings to the peace and quiet ideal, so hopelessly out of date amongst us, is to suffer a moral shock, to receive a sort of slap in the mind's face. Yet it is so. There is no race on earth less addicted to strenuousness than the Malay, and his country has been for the last forty years a field for the energies of that undeniably strenuous combination of races, the British and the Chinese. These two have penetrated into every corner of the Malay's country. On the topmost heights of the hills the British have fixed trigonometrical beacons visible for miles; at the feet of the same hills they have blasted out quarries. No jungle swamp has proved too deep, too dark, or too deadly for their roads and their railways. However remote a *kampung* may be, some surveyor or some land officer has penetrated to it, measured its size and assessed its rent, nay, in all probability some path has been constructed to it, making access to the outside world easy for its inhabitants. Not a tin-bearing valley but has been scratched and scored and pitted and turned upside down by Chinese in the search for ore. The rivers have drowned many Chinese and some few Englishmen. All over the country the Chinese pedlar and hawker and higgler has wandered to buy and sell. Everywhere alien ideas and alien methods have displayed their alien successes, yet the Malay

still remains ignorant and careless of being the owner of one of the world's richest countries and still he will tell you, almost in the words of the Preacher, that better is an handful with quietness than both the hands full with travail and vexation of spirit.

As you pass through the country you are grateful to these people without being quite conscious of it. Your eye lights upon the recurrent little cameo views of the ricefield set about with the coconut palms, a few crescent-horned buffaloes lazing in the centre of the picture and contemplating with a more than bovine stolidity the naked little brown child who will presently command them homewards with his wand. In time the marvels of the natural scenery pall upon the sight ; the jungle riots too much in the vision, which despairs of ever forming for the mind a connected picture to take away. But the Malays have given the country the only beauties in it provided by the hand of man. Touching this responsive land they have adorned it, and still continue to adorn, and whether you live here, or merely flash through, yet the pictures which the Malays have provided are carried in your brain.

You will know little of them, but will read much, for the people and their way of life lend themselves to description. To be born, to live and to die a Malay amongst the *kampongs*—"no other business offers a man his daily bread upon such joyful terms." For consider how they live. Twenty-five coconut trees in full bearing and a patch of rice land provide a sufficient living for one Malay family. The labour necessary to be spent on the coconuts is scarcely

to be regarded. At the most it consists in seeing that the coconut beetle does not attack the trees and in very many districts the beetle does not exist at all. The padi field demands somewhat severe exertion in preparation, and perhaps the crop will fail in a dry year or suffer from pests such as the padi-borer insect or the rat. These two—the coconut and the rice—are the main staples, the daily bread of the Malay, and he is offered them upon sufficiently joyful terms. His climate is kind to him. His people live to good ages and their worst enemy is malaria. If they come through its perpetual attacks in early youth they acquire, if not an immunity, some sort of tolerance of the disease. Taxes bear very lightly upon them, for the typical Malay peasant never need meet the direct tax-gatherer but once in the year, when he pays his land-rent to the collector, and the indirect taxes, all based upon the consumption of luxuries, do not touch him at all. Except for clothing, which his women are ceasing to weave, and implements of iron, his life's round is quite self-contained, and he need never be beholden to any man for anything except perhaps salt and tobacco, for these two are not produced in the country. Everything else he can procure, if not from his own patch of land, usually about five acres in extent, then from the jungle which in most districts is still close to the cultivated lands.

His house is built of wood. A few
Malay Houses. rich Malays build their walls of planks, with tile roofs, but the vast majority of houses consist of uprights, cut in the jungle and

dragged thence by a buffalo, with walls of interlaced rattan wattle. The roof is, near the coast, of the *atap* or *nipah* leaf, taken from a large palm which grows in the salt swamps amongst the mangrove, or if the house is up-country then the roof will be made of an up-country palm whose leaves are narrower and not so stout as those of the *nipah*. The uprights are sometimes set upon square stones resting on the ground, but as often as not are only driven into the earth. Windows are merely horizontal slits in the walls protected by a shutter, also of *atap* or perhaps of rattan. Along one side of the house runs a covered verandah, raised usually some five feet above the ground, as is the floor of the house, and reached by a fixed ladder. Giving on to this is the front door, which often runs back along the wall on rollers, so as to save space both inside the house and on the verandah. Where there are children a railing is fixed across the doorway to prevent them getting out and falling off from the raised verandah. The interior of the house is usually dark. There are no windows in the high-pitched roof. Sometimes there may be a partition dividing the house-space into rooms. Often there is a sort of garret or shelf up in the roof whither unmarried girls retire on the approach of a strange man, and here they sleep at night. If there is such a shelf there will be a small window in the wall lighting it and enabling the girls to see all that is going on outside the house. Probably the only house furniture will be the sleeping mats and mosquito nets—if any—of the

family and perhaps a raised bed place for the father and mother. There will be no chairs or tables in a Malay cottage, in the country at least, though in the towns they are beginning to take to them. At the back of the house there will be another verandah, this time as a covered passage leading to the kitchen. The immediate surroundings of Malay houses are usually very untidy to the English eye. The people live much out of doors : their houses do not adjoin, so one cannot annoy another by throwing refuse into the back garden. Consequently all slops from the kitchen and all house refuse are thrown aside close to the house. All the urban sanitary precautions and regulations, which have been rendered imperative in Western and some Eastern lands by the population's habit of living huddled up together in adjoining houses, are amongst Malays in their own countryside quite unnecessary. Daily heavy rains and daily tropical sun do a disinfection which "if seven maids with seven mops should sweep for half a year" yet they would not accomplish. Malays do not live in what we know as villages but rather in hamlets. A Malay district is well populated if a cock crowing at one house can be heard in the next, which expression, by the way, is one of their modes of measuring distance. Except in the rice districts, where the houses stand in the water of the padi fields, each house is built upon the orchard land, with the rice swamp close by.

The prime dish at every meal is
Malay Food. boiled rice and the prime ingredient in every dish is what we know as curry,

that is herbs and spices. The principal meats are fish and fowl, and only on high days and holidays do the Malays eat buffalo meat or beef or goat flesh. Almost every house has a small herd of goats ; most people have several cows running in their neighbourhood, and many possess buffaloes whose chief use is to plough the padi fields in their season and perhaps to drag timber from the jungle. The rice is grown in the rice-swamp near the house and when reaped it is stored under the house in a large round bin usually constructed of bark from some great forest tree, but sometimes a regular granary is built, often of plaited rattan in ornamental pattern. From the bin or granary it is taken as required by the housewife and by her and her girls pounded in a wooden mortar which lies on the ground near the house. The pestle will be a long piece of heavy wood held upright, gripped by both hands in the middle and forcibly brought down into the golden mass of grain. From time to time the grain is put into a light rattan tray and winnowed after the ancient fashion of tossing it into the air and catching it again so that the breeze bears away the chaff. During this daily task it is the woman's constant duty to keep off the eager fowls which surround her to steal what they can of the grain, for Malays will not lightly squander rice on fowls if they can help it, and the birds have to hustle for a living off the land round the house. Hence, it may be said, is the reason for the skinniness of the fowls which appear at our tables sometimes. The "tame villatic fowl" of the cottager are often half-bred with the jungle

fowl of the forest. The herbs and spices which compose the curry sauce of the dishes are grown near the house and ground at home. The vegetables, sweet potatoes, pumpkins, cucumbers, fern tops, ground-nuts and the like will be found in a patch of rough ground not far off, sugar cane is grown hard by, and the drink is water from the well. All round the house will be a fruit orchard and it will be in season with one fruit or another all the year round.

Thus everything is quite self-contained, quite *sénang*, and a Malay family can live very healthily, happily and long without ever being indebted to any other race, except, as said above, for a little salt, for clothing, and for implements of iron. The natural increase of goats, fowls and cattle and the surplus of the rice and fruit harvest, when sold in the nearest Chinese village or large town, at once provide money to pay for these.

Those familiar accompaniments of Western civilisation, want and misery, wretchedness and degradation, sodden profligacy, and alcoholised unhappiness do not exist for this Malay people. They are not so light-hearted as the Burmese or Japanese, to both of whom they are by race allied, possibly because the Malays are Muhammadans, nor so stolid as the Chinese, to whom also they are allied, nor do they greatly resemble their Annamese neighbours, but seem to hold the balance between all these. Living in a country where the strenuous life connotes the frequent death, they avoid all unnecessary exertion with a care which is obviously the hereditary result of centuries'

residence in a tropical climate. If there be an ingenious way of doing a thing without physical exertion then you may be quite certain that this is the way the Malay does it, and the fine art of sparing oneself, which other races in Malaya never learn till they are dead, "so short the life, so long the art to learn," has been brought to a wonderful perfection by the Malays. This is not laziness ; it is not indolence ; it is not slackness ; with all of which the race is unintelligently reproached. It is race-intelligence, and it means and it results in *sénang*, and *sénang* is the Malay for salvation, mental and physical, in this climate. Therefore, as you pass through the country, and see, as you will see, even from the railway only, man after man doing nothing, sitting perhaps on the top step of his house ladder, whilst his wife idly winnows padi below, do not thank yourself that you are not as Malays are, but remember that had their racial characteristic not been this they never could last, never could be the rapidly increasing race which they actually are.

The white man comes, the Chinese comes, the Indian comes, to the Malay's country, and they live their alien strenuous lives. They make material progress and show material death and sickness rates. That is their way of being happy. It is not the Malay's way. He rejects, and in some sense despises, other people's way, for the vast majority of him consists of "people in humble circumstances," like those described by Renan, "in the state so common in the East, which is neither ease nor poverty. The

extreme simplicity of life in such countries, by dispensing with the need for comfort, renders the privileges of wealth almost useless and makes every one voluntarily poor. On the other hand the total want of taste for art and for that which contributes to the elegance of material life gives a naked aspect to the house of him who otherwise wants for nothing." He is born, and lives, and gets children and dies in his country, as his ancestors did. He has no cold northern climate to which, if he be still alive, he can occasionally retire and there recruit, as the Briton has. He cannot lose millions of his population and never feel the loss, as the Chinese can. Is it strange that occasionally one has an uncomfortable feeling that the Malayan race-spirit smiles behind his hand at the race-spirits of the other people. If he smiles now, and really he can hardly help it, he will laugh heartily some day, as those do who are the last to laugh, for the Malay will still be in the Peninsula when the other races have finished their exploitation of it and gone to their own place. That simple outlook of the race is based on the pursuit and possession of *sénang* and the race-intelligence knows it.

The Malay race inhabits the Malay Peninsula, the Islands of Java, of Sumatra, of Celebes, of Borneo, and of the Malay Archipelago, and wherever found its men and woman are wearing the sarong. This garment is simply a skirt of gaily coloured material not gathered in by sewing at the waist, but formed in one long tubular straight shape, put on to the body either over the head or else stepped into.

This garment is worn by either sex. A man wears a shorter sarong than a woman, and tightens it round his waist with a twist and a fold which are only learnt by long use and practice and, even so, violent exertion will dislodge it. A woman, if she is wearing no other garment (and she is considered decently, if informally, dressed in the domestic circle if wearing only a sarong), hitches it up above her breasts, and she too twists and folds it with a success due to practice, but her twists are different from those a man would use. But with either sex to wear only the sarong and no other garment is only permissible when one is in privacy, as, for instance, when bathing at a well behind the usual palm leaf screen, or near one's own house, or working in the fields. Just as no European would make a practice of going about everywhere in shirt-sleeves but habitually does so when working, so the wearing of the sarong and no other garment is only usual amongst the Malays when they are, as we should say, in their shirt-sleeves. The men wear, therefore, short coats made sometimes to button in front, but more often in one piece to slip on over the head. The women wear a short coat or a long coat, sometimes the long coat over the short coat. When a coat is worn the woman's sarong is secured round the waist, often with a belt, and indeed such is the essential insecurity of the waist-twisted sarong that both men and women as often as not wear belts to make its adherence more sure. It is characteristic of the race that it should wear a garment which is so readily put on, so quickly washed, so easily made, so simply



KLEINGROHTE, *Photographer*.
MALACCA MALAY WOMAN.



KLEINGROHTE, *Photographer*.
JAVANESE WOMAN.

decent, so adaptable for every purpose. The purposes to which it is put are manifold. A man will wear it over his trousers as a short kilt and belt in one, for to Malay notions trousers are indecent wear and demand some additional covering. He will be decently dressed in a sarong alone, but not quite decent in his own mind in trousers alone. Again, the sarong may be used as a bag in which to carry padi or fruit or purchases at a shop, in which case it is usually slung over the back, bulging. It may be twisted into a long roll and wrapped round the head as a turban. As a sleeping garment it is worn by men and women alike. Women leaving their own houses and going abroad wear an extra sarong as a veil or wimple over their heads, drawing it sometimes right across the mouth and leaving nose and eyes only visible. There is much variety both in pattern and material of a sarong. The patterns are either in squares like Scotch plaid patterns, or else in shot and wavy lines, or perhaps figures of birds and beasts and flowers, such as never were on land or sea. The colours are, of course, endless in variety. Yet in this bright land of sunshine, clear air and gorgeous colouring, the most violent discords will harmonise as masses of flower colour will harmonise in a border. Ochre and pink worn by the same person do not make us gasp; green and scarlet in large splashes set us admiring; white and black in broad bands are hardly remarked. Colour in costume follows the popular taste, and that in turn is moulded by sunshine. Dirty browns, drabs, dull greys, invisible greens, suitable for the

filth and grime of Western cities, find no favour in Malaya. The great majority of sarongs are of cotton cloth known as *kain plekat* and coming from India. These, apparently without exception, all have a broad stripe in them of darker colour and more criss-cross pattern. This stripe is known as the *kepala* or "head" of the sarong, and there is an elegance and a smartness in its exact disposition upon the person which the Malay dandy peculiarly affects. The cotton sarongs figured with birds and flowers and beasts, prettiest, perhaps, with a native-blue ground and brown figures, come from the Dutch island of Sumatra, and are Malay-made there. The figures upon them are made by a kind of wax-printing. A considerable quantity of silk sarongs come from Kelantan and thereabouts, but though they look very fine when new they are usually dyed with some aniline European dye and fade to hideousness, whereas a well-dyed and Malay-dyed fabric will fade to beauty.

Malay men may wear either a ker-
Headgear. chief twisted round their heads or a little round brimless cap. The former is more usually seen in the Negri Sembilan. Strictly, no Muhammadan should wear headgear which can prevent his bowing his forehead in the dust, but upon the doctrine that "the letter killeth" the Malays depart from this, and frequently wear large sun and rain hats of palm fibre with an all-round brim from which the rain drips, under which the sun cannot strike. It skills not to describe the caps, for they are in all materials and all colours. The most primitive, as we regard such things, is the little black cap made

out of palm fibre ingeniously woven by hand, remote as the poles asunder from the machine-made article of Western importation. As for the kerchief, it too is of many picturesque varieties, but the most imposing is that worn by a prince of the blood royal, to wit, a menacing, black, stern and starched cloth, truculently striking up to a conical point over the forehead. Wearing this headgear the mildest Malay prince will have all the appearance of a bloodthirsty desperado. The women wear no hats or bonnets. Shawls of silk, veils of gossamer, and the useful sarong are found sufficient covering, save when working in the rice fields, when they too don large dome-shaped palmleaf hats or fold a sarong into a thick square pad to balance on the head.

In the tropics are no biting winds, frozen rains or damp cold puddles to chill the feet, so very few people wear boots or shoes. The country Malay goes without footgear entirely, though in the towns one sees the rise of a pretty taste in shoes and even socks or stockings. But the women embroider slippers for themselves in gold and silver thread on velvet and wear them on dressy occasions. Either sex will also wear the *trompak*, wooden pattens not very different from those worn until recently, and perhaps even still, in the West of England. On a hard road they ring with the fall of each foot in a musical note, and their Malay name *trompak*, *trompak* onomatopoetically echoes the sound.

III.

HINTS FOR MOTORISTS.

By J. H. M. ROBSON.

British Malaya possesses an excellent road system of about three thousand miles. The main trunk road down the length of the Peninsula runs from Prai (on the mainland opposite Penang) to Malacca. North of Prai this peninsular trunk road will ultimately connect with Perlis and the Siamese boundary. Large sections of this northern extension have already been completed. South of Malacca this trunk road continues along the coast to the Johore boundary. From this point to Johore Bahru (where cars from Singapore have to be ferried across the Straits) there is as yet no through road. Construction work is going on, and various sections have been completed. When finished, this Johore part of the main trunk will offer excellent facilities for motor transport of all kinds, since the formation throughout is to be 25 feet wide with a metalled surface of 16 feet and few grades of more than 1 in 40. The Muar river will have to be crossed by a motor ferry.

Port Swettenham on the west coast and Kuantan on the east coast are now connected by a main road, which, after crossing the main range into Pahang, passes through many miles of uninhabited primeval forest. Lower down the Peninsula, another and

much shorter west to east road is under construction to connect Batu Pahat on the west coast with Mersing on the east coast. This 88 miles of road will be entirely in Johore territory.

The main trunk road from Prai to Malacca carries a good deal of motor traffic, is perfectly safe and comfortable to travel over and is never very far away from the railway line. The best time for motoring in Malaya is during the dry season, which lasts from April to September. The temperature, which varies between 70° to 90° Fahrenheit in the shade, is about the same all the year round. The hours of daylight are unchanging throughout the year. It is quite light at 6 a.m. and lamps have to be lit by 6 p.m.

No special type of car is required for Malayan roads, but the more efficient the cooling system the better. For two people not overburdened with luggage a little 10-12 h.p. car would do just as well as in England, but for really comfortable travelling a car of about 20 h.p. is recommended. There is no speed limit, and the road surfaces are good; but all the roads are not yet as wide as they might be, and in many places form an unending succession of sharp corners, which may hide slow-moving bullock carts. An average of 18 miles an hour would be quite enough for strangers to attempt. Petrol and tyres can be obtained in every town and some of the larger villages.

A very few words of Malay will suffice for the needs of passing travellers, but it is advisable to engage a Malay driver or cleaner to assist with tyre

renewals. He should not be allowed to make any adjustments to a strange car. The cleaning may or may not be of a somewhat perfunctory nature, but Malays are generally good-tempered and obliging. The man's name and not the word "loo" (you) should be used in addressing a Malay. The word "loo" is only used when addressing Chinese coolies. Strangers are apt to pick up this word and use it to the wrong people. Wearne Bros., Ltd., who have garages at Singapore, Kuala Lumpur, Ipoh and Penang will be found helpful in the matter of unshipping a car or engaging a driver. At Singapore, there are also the Central Engine Works and the Straits Garage to apply to. The wages of a Malay driver ought not to exceed £1 a week and expenses.

India, Ceylon, British Malaya, Java and parts of French Indo-China are the motoring grounds of Asia. In cases where the travelling motorist intends to stay some time in each of these countries, it may be an advantage to bring a car from Europe ; otherwise, it would be more economical and save a lot of trouble to hire a car in whichever country it was desired to travel. Several steamship companies maintain a regular fortnightly service to and from the Far East. This enables eastward-bound travellers to break their journey at Penang, have 12 days' motoring in the Malay Peninsula and to join the next steamer at Singapore. Similarly, travellers from Japan, China or Australia who are *en route* to Europe or India can leave their steamer at Singapore, hire a car, accompany it by train to Taupin (Malacca boundary),

and have nearly a fortnight's motoring before catching the next steamer at Penang. An alternative procedure for travellers arriving at Singapore would be to take the through night mail to Kuala Lumpur and engage a car there, thus saving a part of the expense incidental to sending the car all the way back to Singapore after arriving in Penang. Hitherto, there has been very little tourist travel by car in the Federated Malay States. So it is not possible to give any exact estimate of cost. Hire of car ought not to exceed £35 a week, inclusive of all running expenses. It would be advisable to write in advance to one of the garages mentioned to secure a car for a fixed date. Light clothing is, of course, a necessity, and a pair of dark or yellow glasses will protect the eyes from the glare of the sun and considerably add to the comfort of the traveller. A revolver is not necessary, but if carried a police permit is necessary. The best time of the day for travelling is between 7 a.m. and noon and between 4.30 p.m. and 6.30 p.m. Of course, in the towns, many people use their cars in the cool of the evening, both before and after it becomes dark.

Travellers bringing a motor car to the Island of Penang will have no import duties to pay beyond a two dollar (4s. 8d.) wharf fee, but a call should be made at the chief police office to obtain information about a car licence. This licence will hold good in the Federated Malay States. If sent on in advance by cargo steamer to save expense, or if in a crate, the unloading of the car can be entrusted to Messrs.

Route.
First Day.

Wearne Brothers, Ltd., Penang. A pocket Malay vocabulary, maps and local literature can be obtained at Messrs. Pritchard & Co., Beach Street. The streets of George Town, Penang, are too narrow and congested for comfortable driving, but the suburban and island roads are excellent. The Eastern and Oriental Hotel is not far from the jetty used by the railway ferry steamer which conveys cars across to the mainland (fee \$4 = 9s. 4d.). Careful steering is required when driving cars on and off these steamers. The first early morning steamer should be taken, full information about which can be obtained at the railway offices or hôtel.

By taking the first steamer of the day
Second Day. travellers can pass right through Province Wellesley in the cool of the early morning, and breakfast at Parit Buntar (25 miles) or Bagan Serai (another 9 miles) in Perak. To save time a telegram should be sent from Penang to the resthouse keeper of the selected place advising him of expected arrival and number of people requiring food. There are so many roads in Province Wellesley that travellers would do well to enquire frequently if they are on the direct road to Parit Buntar. In the Federated Malay States sign posts are to be found at the more important road junctions. From Bagan Serai to Taiping is another 22 miles, which can be managed before lunch. Bagan Serai is the head-quarters of the Krian Irrigation Works, which have provided the Malays with a large extent of well-watered country for rice growing. The travellers will



KLEINGROTHE, *Photographer.*

A MALAY LADY OF NOBLE BIRTH

see more Malays in this part of the country than anywhere else on the main roads of the Peninsula. There is a resthouse at Taiping, situated on the road to the railway station and opposite King Edward VII. School. It may be advisable to fill up with petrol before proceeding to Kuala Kangsar, which is 23 miles further on. A start should be made about 4 p.m., so there is not much time to see Taiping, which is described elsewhere.

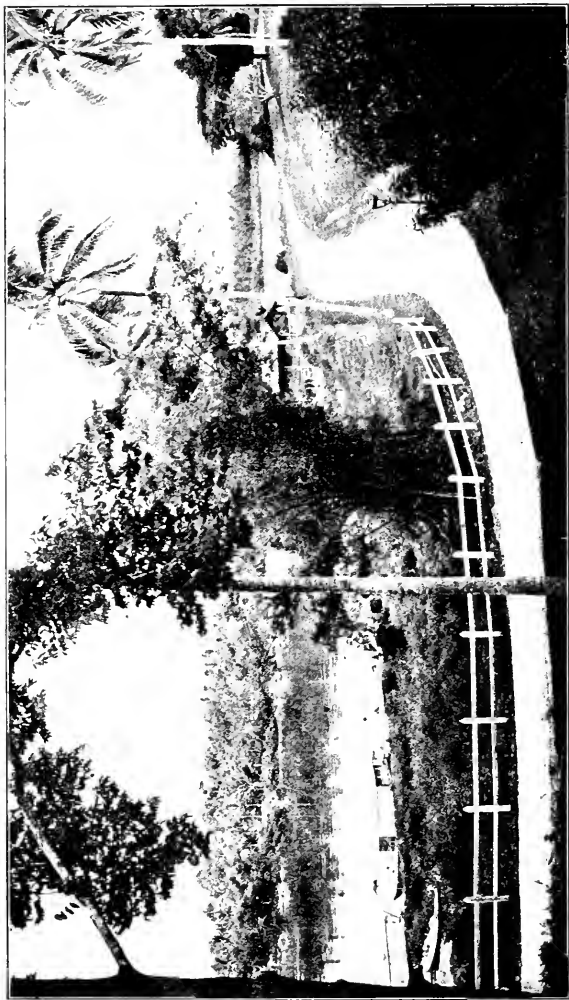
Kuala Kangsar is a beautiful spot where the Sultan has his home, and will well repay a short walk between 5.30 and 6.30 p.m. and again next morning at 6.30 a.m. The resthouse is situated above the town, close to the Club and Government Offices. A telegram from Taiping is not absolutely necessary, but advisable. There is one long precipitous hill when nearing Kuala Kangsar which requires careful driving, but it is the only hill of any importance to be met with for the first two days on the mainland.

Total mileage, second day, 79 miles.

Chief features: Fine roads, Malay cultivation and the headquarters of a Malay district.

A start at 8.30 a.m. for the first stage
Third Day. of 32 miles from Kuala Kangsar should bring the traveller within sight of Ipoh—an important tin-mining and trade centre—before 11 a.m. The Enggor pontoon bridge, four miles from Kuala Kangsar, looks more terrifying than it really is: motor cars cross it daily. The road is good all the way. In order to avoid delay, a supply

of petrol should be obtained on arrival at Ipoh in the morning. Lunch can be obtained at the Ipoh railway station hotel. When in the neighbourhood of Ipoh the opportunity should be taken of visiting one of the large tin mines there, which can most conveniently be done between 2 and 4 p.m.—before the coolies stop work for the day. Ipoh is essentially a Chinese town, and is one of the most rapidly growing centres of Malaya. An English daily paper is published giving the usual Reuter's telegrams. There are branches of the Chartered Bank of India, Australia and China here, at Kuala Lumpur, Klang, Malacca and Seremban. A visit to the club in the evening will bring the travellers into touch with their fellow countrymen who live and work in this part of the world. Letters of introduction are always useful, but failing these, a personal call on the Secretary of a social club will usually be found sufficient to secure the privilege of visiting membership. The hotel at Ipoh is often full, so it is advisable to enquire by wire from Penang if rooms will be available on the day required. Should no accommodation be available, there will be no hardship in continuing the third day's journey for about another twelve miles to the pretty little township of Batu Gajah, where, as elsewhere except in Ipoh, there is not likely to be any difficulty about resthouse accommodation. In any case the run out to Batu Gajah makes a pleasant evening drive, but in view of the dust nuisance (to other people) the pace should be moderate.



KLEINGROBE, *Photographer.*

THE RIVER PERAK AT KUALA KANGSAR.

Total mileage, third day, will depend on whether the night is spent at Ipoh or Batu Gajah, and the amount of local travelling done in the neighbourhood of Ipoh.

Chief features : Crossing the Perak river, view of a tin mine worked by Chinese coolies, and Ipoh town.

Starting from either Ipoh or Batu

Fourth Day. Gajah in the early morning the well-built town of Kampar can easily be reached in time for breakfast (24 miles). This place is also a great mining centre and a smaller edition of Ipoh. From Kampar to Sungkai, passing through Temoh, Tapah, and Bidor, is 31 miles. Lunch can be taken here or at Tanjong Malim, but travellers are recommended to go straight on to the latter place before stopping, because the last 39 miles, after passing Sungkai, is a lonely stretch of road devoid of human habitations. Like all Perak roads, it has an excellent surface, but winds about a good deal and is flanked on both sides by heavy jungle. It reminds one of a road through a well-wooded park. If Kampar is reached and breakfast there finished by 9 a.m., it is quite feasible to run straight through to Tanjong Malim (70 miles). Sungkai is a mere village, but Tanjong Malim is a small town where there is quite a good resthouse. This place is on the boundary between Perak and Selangor. The numbering of the milestones will be *from* Kuala Lumpur after leaving Tanjong Malim. A comfortable rest can be taken after lunch before proceeding on the last stage to Kuala Kubu (16 miles). This place is the starting

point for a main road which crosses the mountain range into the east coast State of Pahang. A full supply of petrol should be purchased here. It is generally on sale, but if there was any difficulty, one of the local car owners would probably come to the assistance of travellers.

Total mileage, fourth day, 110 miles.

Chief feature : Park-like road through the jungle.

The suggested trip for the fifth day will

Fifth Day. take the travellers across the main range of the Peninsula by one route, and bring them back by another, leading direct to Kuala Lumpur, the capital of the Federated Malay States. It is a long journey, and a route which will necessitate careful driving, but the magnificent forest scenery should not be missed. Starting in the early morning from Kuala Kubu there is a steady pull up hill on a gradient of about 1 in 30 for about 15 miles, in a distance 21 miles, to a place called The Gap, which is the boundary between Selangor and Pahang. There is a resthouse here. From this place there is a drop down for about 13 miles to the little village of Tras, and thence another 10 miles leads to Raub, where there is an old established gold mine. The road itself is excellent, but it forms an unending succession of corners, is not too wide and is flanked in places by precipices. Although not actually dangerous—public service motor vehicles driven by Malays pass up and down every day—the trip is not recommended for nervous people. For others the grandeur of the jungle scenery is well

worth the climb. Brakes should be examined before starting, and on descending grades the car should be kept well in hand. Times should be arranged so that neither the up nor down motor omnibus is actually met on the road. Necessary information on this point can be obtained from the Stationmaster at Kuala Kubu, and motor traffic signals should be noted at the Kuala Kubu and Gap resthouses. Gabriel horns are useful on this road. The return journey, after an early lunch at the Raub resthouse, would be on the same road to Tras and Trantum (11 miles) and thence to Bentong (total 30 miles). From Trantum to Bentong the road is very tortuous. From Bentong the climb up to the Pass has an average gradient of 1 in 40, with lengths of 1 in 30. On the Selangor side of the Pass there is a short length of 1 in 26, and the rest 1 in 30. Careful driving is necessary. Distance from Bentong to Kuala Lumpur 50 miles. Or the day's journey may be shortened by omitting the visit to Raub, turning off at Trantum, 12 miles from The Gap, and proceeding direct to Bentong for lunch. The petrol required at Kuala Kubu before undertaking this suggested Pahang trip will depend on the tank and mileage capacities of particular cars.

There is very fair hotel accommodation at Kuala Lumpur, visitors being catered for by the Empire or Station Hotels. There are no garages attached to these places; visitors generally leave their cars at one or other of the town garages.

Total mileage, fifth day, 124 or 102 miles.

Chief features: Magnificent jungle scenery on thickly wooded hills.

Apart from overhauling the car, taking
Sixth Day. a rest, and doing a little shopping, the Museum, Public Gardens, Golf Links, Government Buildings, Polo Ground, Schools, Hospitals and so on are all worth visiting when in Kuala Lumpur. A daily paper is published in the afternoon, giving latest Reuter's telegrams, &c. There are quite a number of enthusiastic motorists in the Capital, and a stranger would have no difficulty in getting into touch with one or other of them, who would be only too pleased to afford assistance and information. About an hour's run from Kuala Lumpur are some famous sulphur baths attached to the Dusun Tua resthouse, which are reputed to be of therapeutic value for people with rheumatic tendencies. Apart from the hot baths there is no special attraction at this place. If sufficiently interesting the stay at the Capital might be extended to two days, but this must be left to individual inclination. On the assumption that one day suffices, arrangements should be made to leave on the seventh day, after a seven o'clock breakfast, to make a circular trip of the chief rubber-growing districts.

Returning north along the Batu Road
Seventh Day. for 18 miles to a small town called Rawang, a steep hill has to be negotiated at the tenth mile. Between the eighth and twelfth milestones there are many corners, and the road is generally hilly. Just before reaching Rawang



KLEINGROTH, Photographer.

ON THE KUALA KUBU-KUALA LIPIS ROAD.



KLEINGROTH, Photographer.

MOTOR SERVICE, KUALA KUBU-KUALA LIPIS.

Railway Station a turn to the left is taken leading to Kuala Selangor, on the coast. Distance from Kuala Lumpur 49 miles. The road is hilly for about half the distance between Rawang and Kuala Selangor, but on reaching the rubber belt it becomes flat. There is an alternative route from Kuala Lumpur, via Batu, Kepong and Bukit Rotan (43 miles). Enquiry should be made in Kuala Lumpur as to comparative state of the roads on the two routes. Cars are left at the foot of the hill on which the Kuala Selangor resthouse stands. The run after lunch from Kuala Selangor to Klang (28 miles) is on a perfectly flat road, flanked by some of the finest rubber estates in Malaya. The milestones record distances from Klang on this section. The Klang resthouse, where a halt may be welcomed for tea, is situated near the railway station. There are two routes from Klang to Kuala Lumpur. The shorter one following the railway line out of the town is recommended (30 miles). For about half way the milestones record distances from Klang, but on reaching the boundary of that district the record is from Kuala Lumpur.

Total mileage, seventh day, 103 or 107 miles.

Chief feature : View of rubber estates.

After breakfasting in Kuala Lumpur,

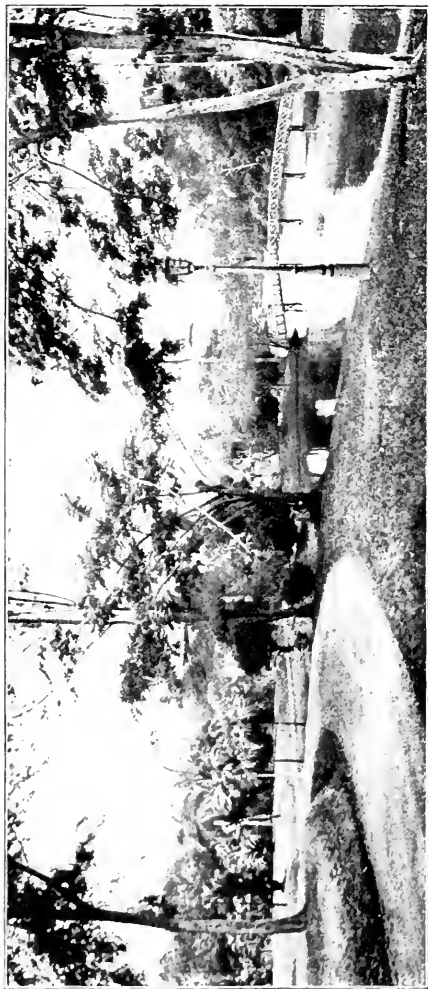
Eighth Day. lunch can be arranged for at Seremban,

the capital of Negri Sembilan. Leaving

Kuala Lumpur, via Market Street, Yap Ah Loy Street, and Cross Street, and passing Sultan Street Railway

to the suburb of Pudu. From this point there are two alternative routes to the town of Kajang, one straight on, via Cheras, and the other by turning off to the right at the Pudu Police Station and passing through the important mining centre of Sungei Besi. The latter is about four miles longer.

On reaching Sungei Besi, it is necessary to turn down one of the two streets on the right and then turn to the left to get on to the main road. Passing Serdang and the rubber estates, the road to Kajang is easily followed. Distance by direct route 15 miles, or via Sungei Besi 19 miles. From Kajang (turning to the left opposite the Government offices) the road runs direct to the Selangor boundary at Beranang, passing through Semenyih *en route*. Kajang to Beranang 13 miles. From this point the milestones record distances from Seremban, to which place the road, passing through Mantin and Setul, is good except for a long severe hill beyond Mantin. The gradient of this hill section is nothing out of the way for Malaya, but there is the usual unending succession of corners. One or two of them require careful negotiation. Total distance, Kuala Lumpur to Seremban, 44 miles by direct route, or 48 miles via Sungei Besi. A new road from Kajang to Seremban, through Labu (Selangor) avoiding Nilai (Sepang Road Railway Station) and through Labu (Negri Sembilan), will avoid this hill, but is several miles longer. If this route is adopted, the travellers go through the main street of Kajang and pass the Station on the right, the main road is reached leading



KLEINGROTH, *Photographer.*

THE LAKE AND GARDENS, KUALA LUMPUR.

railway station. Seremban is a prettily situated town, with a large resthouse on the hill above the lake not far from the railway station. After lunch here a visit should be paid to the P.W.D. office to enquire if accommodation is available at the Port Dickson Sanatorium (to avoid staying at the Port Dickson resthouse, which is some distance from the bathing beach), and arrangements should be made to reach Port Dickson by the new direct road (about 24 miles) by 5 p.m., as the best time for bathing is between 5.15 and 6.15 p.m.

Total mileage, eighth day, 68 or 72 miles.

Chief features: View of Seremban town and sea bathing at Port Dickson.

The return journey to Seremban would

Ninth Day. be along the seashore for 18 miles to Pasir Panjang, then six miles to Linggi, a planting centre, followed by 24 miles of give-and-take road to Seremban. Total 48 miles. After lunch there remains 25 miles to bring the travellers to their next halting place, a good resthouse at Kuala Pilah, the headquarters of a Malay district. The surrounding scenery of this place is quite pretty. One severe hill has to be negotiated between Seremban and Kuala Pilah, and it is well to enquire at what times motor omnibuses are likely to be on the hill section. *Travellers should be careful when leaving Seremban to ascertain if they are on the right road.*

Total mileage, ninth day, 73 miles.

Chief features: Coast road and a Malay district.

By this time the travellers will have obtained a general idea of the Federated Malay States, and there only remains a visit to the old-world town of Malacca. From Kuala Pilah to Tampin (24 miles) the road is good, but when Malacca territory is entered a certain amount of jolting and shaking may be experienced.

From Tampin to Malacca the distance is 24 miles. There are two resthouses at Malacca, one outside the railway station and the other facing the sea. The railway resthouse is nearer the bathing place at Tanjong Kling than the Malacca resthouse. There is a Government bungalow at Tanjong Kling, and permission to use this bungalow for bathing purposes can be obtained at the Public Works Office in Malacca town. The road to Tanjong Kling is flat and rather pretty.

Total mileage, tenth day, 48 miles.

**Eleventh
Day.**

Trains for Singapore (change at Tampin) leave Malacca morning and evening. The night train connects with the sleeping-car train from Kuala Lumpur. The car might not be delivered in Singapore till the 13th day, as it would be sent by another train, but the travellers would probably like to have two clear days for seeing Singapore. If proceeding to China and Japan there would be no difficulty in catching the succeeding mail steamer to the one left at Penang. The map and tables of distances included in this book will enable travellers to shorten or lengthen the tour at will, and of course longer daily distances might be attempted, for instance :—

- First day ... Penang.
- Second day ... Ipoh, 111 miles.
- Third day ... Kuala Lumpur (direct), 148 miles.
- Fourth day ... Kuala Lumpur.
- Fifth day ... Tampin via Seremban and Kuala
Pilah, 90 miles.
- Sixth day ... Arrive Singapore (by train).
- Seventh day... Car do.

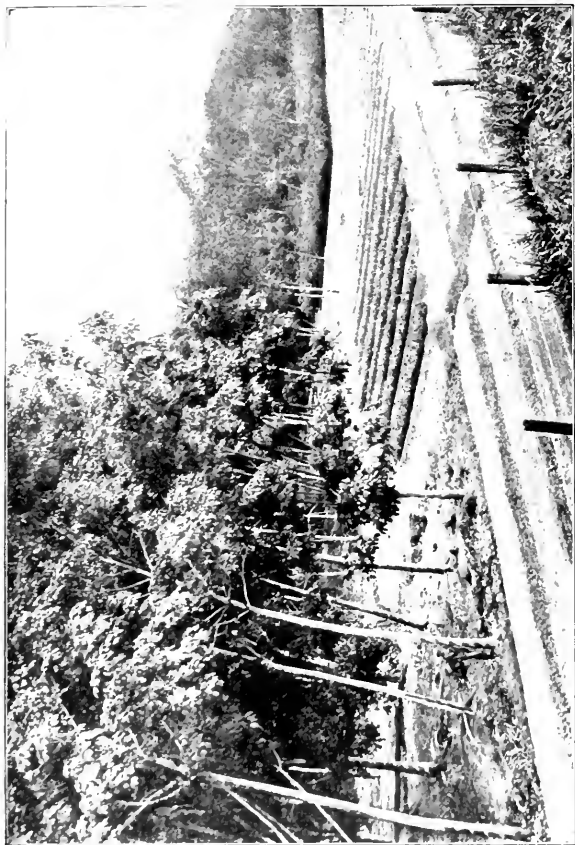
For people who intend to visit Rangoon, Madras or Calcutta after touring in Malaya, the trip should commence from Singapore, or even if returning to Ceylon there is a slight advantage in starting from Singapore by railway, in that cars are landed at Singapore direct on to a wharf and can then be shipped straight through to Tampin or Malacca by train. On the whole, too, the roads improve going northwards, and the tour finishes without having to catch and change trains. All steamers do not go alongside the Penang wharf, so it would be advisable to get there a day in advance, in order to arrange for a *tongkang* (sea barge) for taking car to steamer.

For the benefit of people who would prefer to start from Singapore, the outlined tour may be briefly set down as follows:—

- First day ... Arrival at Singapore. Forward
car by goods train or local
passenger train to Tampin or
Malacca.
- Second day ... Leave by train for Tampin or
Malacca.
- Third day ... Tampin to Malacca 24 miles
- Fourth day ... Malacca to Kuala Pilah via
Tampin, 48 miles.

- Fifth day ... Kuala Pilah to Port Dickson via Seremban, 73 miles.
- Sixth day ... Kuala Pilah to Kuala Lumpur via Seremban, 68 or 72 miles.
- Seventh day ... Kuala Lumpur to Rawang, Kuala Selangor, Klang and back to Kuala Lumpur, 107 miles.
- Eighth day ... At Kuala Lumpur.
- Ninth day ... Kuala Lumpur to Kuala Kubu via Bentong and Trunum, 102 miles.
- Tenth day ... Kuala Kubu to Ipoh, 110 miles.
- Eleventh day ... Ipoh to Taiping, 55 miles.
- Twelfth day ... Taiping to Penang, 56 miles.

Compared with daily trips undertaken when touring in Europe, some of the suggested daily mileages may appear to err on the side of extreme moderation, but the conditions are so very different in Malaya that after allowing for longer runs on one or two days, any middle-aged man or lady would probably find the shorter runs quite sufficient, especially if stoppages are made at the different little towns and villages *en route*. The mileages given are approximately correct, but deviations, corner cuttings and such like improvements are being systematically carried out and this renders distances quoted liable to revision. Travellers are warned against consigning a car to any small railway station without first enquiring if there is an unloading dock. Some of the stations have no facilities for loading and unloading cars. Cars can be hired at \$4 (9s. 4d.), \$5 (11s. 8d.), and \$6 (14s.) an hour, but rates are not advertised for extended tours.



KIENGRUOH, *Photograph*.

NURSERY OF YOUNG PARA RUBBER AND 6-YEAR-OLD PARA RUBBER TREES.

IV.

BIG GAME SHOOTING.

By THEODORE R. HUBBACK, author of "Elephant and Seladang Hunting in Malaya." (*Rowland Ward, Limited, London.*)

There is a certain fascination about **Introduction.** the expression "Big Game Shooting" which appeals to most Britishers, and a country which provides such shooting will invariably be sought after by a certain section of the sport-loving community from our island home.

Malaya has been visited up to the present by very few sportsmen in search of Big Game, chiefly because very few people know anything about the country as a field for the Big Game hunter, and also because the many difficulties to be encountered have frequently proved on enquiry to appear so great that the would-be hunter-visitor has turned his attentions to some better known locality.

But the difficulty of obtaining a trophy generally enhances its value to the possessor, and those who are prepared to face a certain amount of hard work and inconvenience, and are well posted up with the information that is necessary to enable them to organise a hunting trip, should be able to obtain

trophies that will well repay them for the hard work, energy and time expended.

The sportsman who contemplates coming to Malaya to shoot big game will probably be already equipped with a battery, but perhaps a few hints on what class of rifle is suitable will not be out of place. It will be shewn later on in this article that most of the opportunities to shoot at Big Game that may occur in the dense jungle that one hunts in will be within a limit of twenty-five yards, very frequently much closer than that. It will be at once apparent that when facing dangerous game at such near quarters a powerful weapon is absolutely essential. Some years ago, before the advent of cordite rifles, the few local sportsmen when in pursuit of big game armed themselves with the heaviest rifles that they could obtain, ranging from four bores to twelve bores; the twelve borites, however, did not as a rule prove so successful as the devotees of the heavier guns. Shooting in dense forest, the discharge of an eight bore rifle burning 10 to 12 drams of black powder resulted in the gunner being enveloped in a thick smoke through which he could see nothing for several seconds, and the vicinity of which, if he was a wise man, he left as quickly as the thick undergrowth would allow him. Nowadays all this is changed, and to those who can afford to supply themselves with cordite rifles the terrors of the black smoke of the eight bore are no more. A good battery for a shooting trip in the Federated Malay States would

consist of two cordite rifles .450 or .500 bore, a 12-bore shot gun, or ball and shot gun. Rifle cartridges should be put up in hermetically sealed tins containing not more than ten cartridges in each case, and an exceptionally strong cartridge bag should be obtained with a very large flap to keep one's cartridges dry during the heaviest rains. Camp equipment may consist of a great deal or very little according to the requirements and the purse of the hunter. It must, however, be remembered that the lighter the camp-outfit the better chance one has of getting about the country quickly, the less difficulty one will have in obtaining carriers, and the more likelihood one has of getting up to game. It is quite unnecessary to take tents. The Malays who would be with the party can in a very short time put up a most respectable shelter, made out of small jungle saplings and the leaves of one of the many ground palms that can be found in almost any part of the virgin forest ; so a very cumbersome and expensive item is dispensed with. The following light camp outfit would prove quite sufficient to provide the hunter with all the comfort that he would require. An American camp bed, camp chair, and camp table, an aluminium canteen such as is sold at any of the large London stores, a couple of waterproof sheets about seven feet square, two pillows, a muslin mosquito net, which should be specified as sandfly proof, a good rug, a couple of small hurricane lamps, and the outfit would be complete. A good addition to the equipment would be a small camera which would be able to

reproduce the pleasant spots that lie hidden far away in the depths of the Malayan forest, but only one of those specially built for the tropics should be taken. Most of the provisions required on a hunting trip for the white sportsman have to be taken with the expedition. The Malay carriers can generally find their own stores, which consist of little more than rice and dried fish.

Provisions should be put up in boxes about the size of whisky cases, but should not weigh more than 30 pounds apiece, for in the event of one having to transport these cases through the jungle with Malay coolies, 30 pounds a man will be found to be about their limit. There is, however, a better way of carrying one's goods through the jungle should a long journey be contemplated, and that is by making the Malays take with them the native carrying baskets which are known as *ambong* or *galas*. This basket is made of split rattan or bamboo, and is constructed so that it can be strapped on to the back of the cooly, and is also supported by a broad bark strap across the man's forehead. All sorts of stores can be placed in these baskets, from one's canteen to one's tinned fish or meat, and it would be found most convenient to the sportsman who intended going on a trip to see that his Malay carriers were provided with them before they set out on their journey. Such baskets are commonly used by Ma'lays and can be found in almost every village.

**Trackers and
Carriers.**

Before starting out on any expedition after big game the sportsman must arrange to take with him a good

Malay hunter, who will be able to take him to the most likely places for the game, who must be a first class tracker, and must also have a very considerable local knowledge of the jungle. It must be borne in mind that all hunting in Malaya is done on foot. The game has to be followed up with the help of native trackers until it is found, and when the shot is taken the hunter is frequently within a dozen yards or so of his quarry, probably in dense jungle, and always unable to see his game quite distinctly.

A few head of game may have been obtained by sitting up over salt licks at night, or by waiting on a built platform at the side of some well-known game track where the gunner would be well out of danger in case of accidents, but this way of obtaining trophies cannot appeal to any real lover of the word "sport," considering that it is quite possible to bag one's game by legitimate methods.

To engage the services of a good Malay tracker is a most difficult business. The older generation of Malays is passing on, and the younger generation are not the men their fathers were where hunting and woodcraft are concerned. The only way to obtain the services of a good tracker is to enquire through the nearest official source if such a man is to be found in the district. If so, and he has a good reputation, engage him to go with you on your trip and make the best terms possible.

A first-class man will have to be paid between \$20 (£2 6s. 8d.) and \$30 (£3 10s. od.) a month. He would find his own food out of this, but will want an

advance before he starts to provide himself with necessities for his journey and to leave some money behind at his home. A Malay never has any money. Carriers have also to be engaged, the number of which will depend on the amount of baggage, which again depends a great deal on the length of time that one intends to devote to hunting. Should the party be working from a river, where the bulk of one's goods would be transported by boat, extra carriers would be engaged at the villages where news was obtained that game was in the vicinity. Malays can generally be engaged who will undertake the duties of carriers—provided that they are only very lightly loaded—for a wage of 50 cents. (1s. 2d.) a day, but will want a small advance before they can be persuaded to leave their homes. When working from a river the boatmen who are engaged for the rowing or poling of the boat are engaged under the same circumstances as the carriers, and will act as carriers when a trip is made inland in search of game. Under such conditions two men would probably be left in charge of the boat, or if the boat was left at the landing-place of a village one man would suffice, all the rest of the party would take what was necessary for the “commissariat,” and depart up-country or wherever news of game took one. If Malay coolies are treated like children, are not asked to do much work or carry more than 25 to 30 pounds a day, are allowed to amuse themselves as they think best when the day's work is over, even though their singing does set one's teeth on edge, the

sportsman will find that he can manage fairly well with them, and that they will enter into the spirit of the expedition as far as their intelligence will allow them to do so ; but if, on the other hand, they are treated at all harshly or even like what they really are, paid servants, they will spend most of their time sulking, and will not help towards the enjoyment of the trip.

The writer has found that it is an excellent plan to engage Malay coolies for a long trip on a monthly wage plus their rice, an allowance of a catty ($1\frac{1}{2}$ pounds) of rice a day being an ample ration. The other articles of diet they would find themselves. If Malay carriers have to find their own rice on a long trip they either seriously upset one's arrangements by running out of rice at some critical juncture, or else are continually bothering one for small money advances. Twelve dollars (£1 3s. 6d.) a month and a rice allowance on a long trip, or 50 cents. (1s. 2d.) a day without a rice allowance on a short trip will prove to be the best terms that can be made. In some districts it is possible to get Malays to work for 50 cents. (1s. 2d.) a day and find their own food, and before making arrangements as to wages enquiries should be made from the nearest headman as to what are the ruling rates in the district. Always remember in dealing with Malays that they have made a fine art of indolence, that they must be treated like children ; make up your mind to put up with both these serious drawbacks, and even a stranger in the land will be able to manage them.

Big game shooting in Malaya means the hunting of elephant, sěládang (the local type of *Bos Gaurus*), and rhinoceros. **The Game.** Tigers and leopards are fairly numerous in many localities, but the chances of hunting them are very remote; beating for them, owing to the extreme denseness of the jungle, is impossible, and the only way to obtain a feline trophy is to sit up over a kill and take one's chance. It is not practicable to follow the system of tying up baits and waiting for one of them to be killed; tigers have far too much wild game to keep them in food to give them much time to get into the habit of hunting domestic animals, and a tied-up bait would probably be left untouched for weeks. Of course, there might be exceptional cases (where a tiger or leopard had taken to the village cattle) when a tied-up bait might prove successful, but such cases would be extremely rare. Sometimes one hears of a bullock or a buffalo having been killed near a village, but even when one does hear of it the news generally comes too late to enable one to do anything, or the carcase has been removed by some over-zealous native before one has time to make arrangements to sit up for the tiger.

The writer once had a chance of having a shot at a tiger in this way which was spoilt by the greed of a Malay villager. Living at a place called Durien Tipus in the Negri Sembilan a Malay named Abu, who often went hunting with the writer, came early one morning and informed him that an elephant had been in a clearing opposite his house all night making a most

infernal noise, and wanted to know what was to be done. Preparations were set on foot to go down to the kampong, but before a start had been made another messenger arrived saying that it was not an elephant that had been making all the noise during the night but a tiger and a big boar had been fighting, the tiger had killed the pig and had dragged the carcase out of the clearing up a hill into the big jungle. Here was a good instance of the reliability of a Malay's information. Abu had stated that he had seen the tracks of a big bull elephant, so by his own showing this brilliant specimen could not tell the difference between the tracks of an elephant and a tiger. Of course, he had not really been to the place at all or seen the tracks, while the second messenger had. When the scene of the disturbance was inspected it was found that there had been a right royal fight, and no doubt the tiger had had a very tough job to vanquish his victim, which was a huge boar with most formidable tusks. Hardly any of the boar had been eaten, with the exception of a pound or two of flesh from his neck, but it was marked in many places by both claw and tooth of its powerful foe. The boar was lying in a fairly open piece of jungle, within twenty yards or so of a large anthill, which would have been a good place to wait for the tiger, and orders were given that at three o'clock that afternoon the writer would return and sit up for the tiger. Unfortunately there were some Sakais who lived close to the house of Abu, and these people went down to a Chinese shop, which was likewise unfortunately handy.

and told the story of the tiger and pig fight. The Chinaman, ever ready to make two or three hundred per cent. profit, offered to give the Sakais a couple of dollars if they would bring the pig's carcass down to the shop; Abu, who claimed the pig, told the Sakais that they could have the carcass if they gave him half the money, and the tragedy was complete. When the writer visited the clearing in the afternoon he met the carcass of the boar on its way down to the Chinese shop—it never reached there—and Abu reflected for some days on the extraordinary ways of the white man. The tiger was not seen again in that locality for some months.

Even living in the country these are the only chances that one gets, and they are rather outside chances, which will scarcely ever come the way of the visitor. On a shooting trip the game will have to be searched for and tracked until found. A lucky chance may give the hunter the opportunity of sitting up for a tiger, but such chance should in no way be counted on.

Elephant and sēlādang, on the other hand, can be found with fair certainty in many places in the Federated Malay States, and although with the opening up of the country one has to go farther afield to reach the hunting districts, facilities for travel have so much improved since the advent of the automobile that one is able to reach a district in a day which a few years ago would have taken three or four to reach. There is now little hunting to be obtained in Selangor or Negri Sembilan, the greater portion of these countries have

been opened up with roads and railways, and it would not be worth the while of the visitor to try and obtain game in either of them. In Perak elephants are still to be found near the coast, and in Upper Perak sēlā-dang, rhinoceros and elephant can still be obtained, but the State where by far the best shooting is likely to be accomplished is the eastern State of Pahang. Very little of Pahang has been opened up, and there are many valleys which are sparsely populated, are well watered, and hold quantities of big game. The State of Pahang is watered mainly by the Pahang river, which is the name given to the river made by the junction of the Tembeling and Jelai rivers; there are numerous other smaller rivers which help to swell the broad flood of the Pahang, notably the Krau, the Semantan, the Triang, the Bera, the Jinka, the Jumpol, the Luit, and the Lepar. All these, which are navigable for small boats for some distances from the main river, lead one to good hunting grounds, and a trip of a couple of months spent in Pahang in search of big game would, with reasonable luck, result in success.

It must, however, be remembered that the hunting is difficult, that although there is plenty of game to be found it is not always easy for the visitor, who would presumably be ignorant of the language, to get the village Malays to work for him, and many disappointments must be expected before good trophies are obtained. The best rewards will come to those who work the hardest and will put up with the many inconveniences that the jungle is bound to present to those

unaccustomed to its vagaries ; the trophies are there, and although it may mean waiting for several weeks for the opportunity, come it will to those keen enough to endure "the rough and the hard."

The wild elephant, from its immense size and magnificent trophy, will be the prize which will probably appeal most to the hunter, although the sěládang presents more difficulties to bring successfully to bag ; always excepting the hunter who is in search of special trophies, when he will most likely find it more difficult to obtain a really good specimen of an elephant in the Malay jungle than he will a sěládang.

When making inquiries about big game, reports will often be received from natives that elephants have been near the villages, and in many cases the news bearers will state there is a herd containing a big bull or a solitary bull that carries big tusks. In the majority of instances these reports are entirely incorrect, in all cases they are exaggerated, and in most events they are based on no personal knowledge of the case at all. No reliance can be placed on the news that one casually receives from the Malay villages, and the following notes may be of use to help the visitors to avoid many disappointments.

The writer's experience tends to prove to him that in only very exceptional cases do the old bulls come into the cultivated areas, and then only for a night, or at the most two. They have to be searched for farther afield, near the hill clearings of the Sakais, or up the uninhabited rivers, or along old jungle tracks

far from the abode of man. There are, of course, exceptions to this rule, but it is best to work on that basis when searching for the big bulls. Do not believe the reports of Malays regarding the size of elephants or the size of their tusks ; they exist merely in the imagination of the villager's mind. He has in ninety-nine cases out of hundred never seen the beast at all let alone his tusks.

Where an elephant is reported to have done considerable damage to cultivated crops, and to be continually hanging about the vicinity, and provided the report has some spice of truth in it, the beast is probably a young tusker carrying small tusks, which will not exceed 30 pounds a pair in weight. More frequently, the damage done to standing crops is the work of a herd in which there may or may not be a small tusker ; there is hardly ever a big one with these marauding herds.

A small herd is frequently reported as a solitary elephant, probably designated as a *gajah tengkis*, which generally is meant to convey that the beast has one small foot and will prove invulnerable if fired at. The simple villager, having seen the tracks of elephants and probably noticing different sized foot-prints, at once remembers the stories that he has heard of a terrible elephant with a small foot, and the yarn hatches at once. The only way to verify the conflicting statements that one continually hears from Malays when searching for big game is to go oneself and spy out the land, or, if one has a reliable tracker, send him and await his report, being always prepared

to find that the entire story is a fabrication. Work on the basis that the really big bulls must be searched for in the back country, that the medium-sized bulls are occasionally to be found near the villages, especially during the rice season when the crops are coming into bearing, that the herds seldom contain a bull worth shooting, that all native reports must be taken with a very large grain of salt and a large stock of patience, and the hunter will with a little luck come across something worth shooting.

A wild elephant is an easy beast to approach in the thick jungle of Malaya, provided one precaution is observed, and observed continually. Never get to windward of the beast that you are stalking and you can get as close to him as you like. This sounds very simple advice and possibly unnecessary advice, but it is much easier to write about than to carry out. Except in the very early morning, the wind in the jungle never remains in the same quarter for more than a few minutes at a time, and it is useless to take the position of the wind and then work one's stalk on the assumption that the wind is likely to remain where it was at the moment you ascertained its direction. The thick jungle, intermingled with patches of slightly clearer undergrowth, with an occasional open space where some giant of the forest has blown over or died from old age, produces during the slightest breeze a continual series of eddies which no amount of care can altogether overcome. The writer has always made it his practice to ascertain the position of the wind, which may be taken to mean the ever-changing eddies.



KLEINGROTH, *Photographer.*

HILL STREAM IN JUNGLE.

by striking matches every minute or so while approaching an elephant. After following up the fresh tracks of an elephant until the signs of fresh droppings indicate that the quarry is near at hand, it is as well to test the wind to put one on guard should the eddies be following the line of the elephant's footprints. No really systematic wind testing can take place until the exact whereabouts of the elephant has been found out by the sounds which he makes when feeding, when sleeping, or when just idling along doing nothing. In the former case one may frequently hear one's quarry as far away as a quarter of a mile, in the other cases one may get very close indeed without hearing him. A sleeping elephant, that is an elephant sleeping lying down—they frequently sleep in an upright position leaning against a tree—makes very little noise. He occasionally lifts his ear and lets it down again with a sound smack which can be heard quite a long way off; he also often rolls up his trunk and unrolls it again, making a noise like air escaping through water, but this noise can only be heard at quite close quarters. When he is resting standing up he is very hard to locate, occasionally flapping his ears, and even then with such a very languid air that they hardly make any noise at all. If he is doing anything but feeding one requires a certain amount of luck to be able to ascertain his whereabouts before he gets one's wind. A solitary elephant does not, in the Malay jungle, feed at regular hours so it is impossible to judge beforehand what one is likely to find him doing at

any given time of the day : on a hot, dry day he will probably not be feeding during the middle of the day, but that is as far as one dare trust him.

Supposing that the conditions have been favourable, and that one's tracker has brought one up to within about a quarter of a mile of a good sized solitary elephant which is feeding, the crack of a branch will probably be heard and the hunter would immediately halt and listen for further indications of the author of the noise—monkeys make a great deal of noise in the jungle which is frequently mistaken for that made by an elephant by any but the most experienced trackers, but the noise made by an elephant is never mistaken for that made by monkeys. Another branch cracks and one's doubts dissolve, one's pulse quickens, and the critical time is drawing near for which one may have waited for weeks. Now test the wind and if it is blowing in the direction of the elephant make a wide detour to avoid him, continually testing the wind and tacking accordingly. Sometimes the eddies change so quickly that even with the greatest precautions the elephant will get one's wind and vanish, with or without noise, as his temperament may decide ; but let us suppose that in this case all goes well, and presently with a steady wind blowing in our faces we see the great brown mass of what is evidently a big bull elephant. Even in the lightest jungle that this part of the world produces it will probably be necessary to approach within twenty-five yards of one's quarry before there is the least likelihood of being able to see his tusks. We will again suppose that everything is

favourable and at twenty yards distance the bull proves to be well worthy of the hunter and carries a good pair of sizeable tusks, which will look quite a golden yellow colour in the shade of the jungle. Possibly the approach has brought one up in a good position. He is standing broadside on and his ear can be distinctly made out. The actual earhole should be localised and a bullet placed very slightly in front of it. This should prove immediately fatal, the beast probably dropping so quickly that the gunner would be unable to see him fall. But it must not be supposed that the approach will often, if ever, be quite as simple as this, and a few notes as to what may happen, what has actually happened to the writer times without number, may be a help to those who follow. It might almost be taken as a golden rule never to attempt the frontal shot, the shot at the base of the trunk, in the dense jungle that elephants are nearly sure to be in when found. The writer in no way wishes to disagree with the many great authorities who have laid down that this shot is one of the most effective against the Asiatic elephant, but local conditions are such that what proves a valuable shot in other places proves on actual experience almost useless here. The spot to aim for to kill an Asiatic elephant by the frontal shot lies in the middle of the forehead at the base of the trunk which is well defined by a large bump. This spot is about three inches above the eyes which more or less define its position. Now to localise this spot it will be readily understood

that one has to know the position of the eyes as well as be able to see clearly the point one aims for in the centre of the bump, in other words one requires to see the whole of the bump as well as the eyes, which resolves itself into a very large portion of the head. It is almost impossible ever to get such a clear view of an elephant's head in the thickness of the jungle, with the result that, if taken, the frontal shot is guessed at, with what result I need scarcely state.

The shot *par excellence* is undoubtedly the ear shot, but here again a word of warning is necessary. Old elephants have very tattered ears which are so dilapidated that when they flap them forward they hang like a curtain with heavy tassels, and in very thick jungle one of these tatters may easily be taken for the ear-hole. If the brain is missed the elephant, having been fired at from the side, will probably be stunned and will fall over, but will recover himself much more quickly than one would suppose and will be up and away before it is even realised that he has got up. A bullet that misses the brain by being too far back is much more likely to stun the beast badly than one that has been placed too far forward, and if the elephant has fallen at the shot but shows convulsive movements of the legs or trunk it will only be a question of seconds before he is up and off. Fire immediately at him if there is the slightest doubt, but do not attempt to find the brain, fire into the body between the forelegs or, if he is on his knees, directly behind the shoulder. The chances of rectifying the first mistake are infinitely greater by doing this than

by again attempting to put a bullet in the extremely small area of the brain. Firing with a cordite rifle three or four shots can be made within ten seconds if the hunter is quick with his gun, and an initial failure may be turned into a success.

In the event of being unable to take the ear shot, owing to the denseness of the jungle or the position of the head, the shoulder shot should be tried, but should be taken from slightly behind the beast so that the bullet will rake forward into the heart or lungs. This shot will frequently result in a subsequent chase as it is most difficult to localise the position of the heart or lungs when so little of the beast that one is firing at can be seen; of course, a bullet placed in the heart will quickly prove fatal, and a bullet through the centre of the lungs equally so, but a bullet that merely reaches one lung, or which even passes through both lungs high up will require to be supplemented before the beast is brought to bag. In attempting the shoulder shot if it is possible to approach the beast from behind and get a view of the light patch of skin which shews up just behind the junction of the foreleg and the body—this patch can only be seen when his fore leg is stretched forward in the act of making a step—a bullet placed in this patch firing from a position slightly behind that which would be taken up for the ear shot would prove almost instantly fatal.

The following up of a wounded elephant in the Malayan jungle is a very tedious and at times a very trying affair.

An elephant wounded in the head and allowed to get away without any subsequent body shot will certainly not be seen again for two days, possibly not for a week, despite the fact that you are following him as hard as you can go. It is difficult to make one's Malay followers take in the situation. At first they believe that the wounded elephant, which they know actually fell over, is going to die of the wound, and they follow cheerfully enough expecting to come across his carcase every few yards; but when after tracking him for a day or so they find that his tracks, which at first were exceptionally short, have gradually lengthened out into a strong stride, that he seems to be gaining on those following him and getting farther and farther away, the Malays soon decide that it is foolishness to follow any more, and consequently sulk for the rest of the journey,

Perseverance will certainly bring the hunter up to the elephant again in the course of a few days, and if the beast is a big one and is finally bagged, the sportsman will probably in years to come look back on that period of fatigue and discomfort as some of the finest hunting he ever had in his life.

**The
Sĕlādang.**

Although the elephant has a much larger distribution than the sĕlādang, the latter practically not being found on the coast at all, any visitor coming to this country to shoot would probably make such inquiries as would enable him to go to a district where

he would be able to get news of both elephant and sěládang.

The procedure would be much the same as with elephants, and most of the previous remarks concerning the hunting of the elephant would equally apply to sěládang. In isolated places, generally the clearings of Sakais, sěládang undoubtedly come down and feed off the standing crops; in fact, in some places the writer has seen the crops strongly fenced to keep out sěládang, generally with no success, and much rice and Indian corn have been trampled down. But as a rule the sěládang is an exceptionally shy animal, and where much disturbed is most difficult to get up to even with the greatest precautions. It is generally presumed that the best bulls are to be found by themselves, and the track of a solitary animal is always followed up in preference to those of a herd; but it is more than probable that old bulls which are generally the masters of some herd in the vicinity are more frequently to be found with the herd, and that the majority of solitary bulls that are found far away from the main body of sěládang are young bulls unable to hold their own against the heavier old bulls. Very old bulls may be entirely solitary, but they are, in the writer's opinion, few and far between.

The tracking of a sěládang is a much more careful affair than the tracking of an elephant, a sěládang being able to take care of himself with the help of his eyes and ears much better than an elephant can. It is not necessary or even usually possible to test the

wind when tracking a sěládang ; one seldom knows where he is until you see him or hear him rushing off alarmed. It is most difficult to distinguish the bulls from the cows in the jungle, and mistakes are made at times even by the most experienced men. It is, of course, simple enough to distinguish a very large bull and to know that it is a bull ; where the trouble lies is in mistaking the old cows for bulls, especially as they may often be found a little way from the herd. There is absolutely no difference in the colour of the old beasts, an old cow is just as black as an old bull ; the only sure test is the size of the dorsal ridge, which in the old cows is never developed as it is on the old bulls. The horns, if they can be clearly seen, are an infallible test, but the dorsal ridge is much more noticeable in the jungle and can nearly always be distinguished. The horns of a big cow, with the help of the lights and shades of the forest, may appear quite large and be mistaken for those of a bull, the dorsal ridge never.

The horns of an old bull are much corrugated at the base, the tips, which are black, are frequently worn away and stripped of the outer covering of horn, and that portion of the horn which lies between the base and the tip is generally of a dark olive green colour. This makes them very difficult to pick up in the jungle, and the head of an old bull can seldom be seen quite distinctly. On the other hand the horns of a young bull are not much corrugated at the base, are of a light yellow colour shading off to black at the tips, in fact very readily attract the eye, and have

led to Malays continually saying that they have seen a sěládang so old that its horns (they generally add its head too) were quite white. A sěládang that is successfully stalked, that appears to have the top of its back flapping about as if it was loose, that does not appear to have much to look upon in the way of horns, is, in most cases, a prize worth getting; the very bulk of the beast seems to dwarf his height, and the oldest bulls in thick jungle do not make as good a show as their younger brethren.

Sěládang will generally be found resting during the middle of the day, and when tracking them between the hours of 10 a.m. and 2 p.m. the hunter must be prepared to find them lying down in thick covert, when they are most difficult to see and have to be approached with the greatest caution. In the early morning sěládang in certain localities can sometimes be found in open clearings and good opportunities may present themselves, but they seldom remain in the open after 7 a.m., except on dull or wet mornings, when they occasionally stay out as late as 9 a.m. In the evening also they occasionally visit the clearings, but it is frequently dusk before they are seen. Sěládang often visit salt licks, the localities of which will be known to the Malay tracker. These licks are excellent places to go to to pick up tracks, those of any sěládang in the vicinity probably being found there. In localities where they have been much disturbed, however, they fully realise the danger of the salt licks and travel long distances after their visits, the tracking of a beast from a salt lick often being a

long affair ; on the other hand, if a lick is visited which has been left unvisited by man for some months, it is quite possible that the beast may be found lying up close to the salt lick and every precaution should be taken in approaching the spot.

**The
Rhinoceros.**


There are two species of rhinoceros to be found in the Malay Peninsula, the Javan and the Sumatran ; the former is scarce, and has only been recorded from the northern State of Perak, and probably does not exist in Pahang at all. No special comments are necessary concerning the hunting of rhinoceros ; they are not numerous anywhere, the most likely places to find them being in the mountain ranges, where a great deal of climbing must be undertaken. They are very shy, and will prove difficult beasts to come up to when once disturbed, but they seem to be easy to approach so long as they do not get one's wind, and should be stalked with the same precautions observed when following an elephant.

In the State of Perak near the coast in the vicinity of the Dindings there were at one time large numbers of the Sumatran rhinoceros, and they can still be found there, but in most parts of the Malay Peninsula they are only to be found near the mountain ranges.

Malays often report the presence of a rhinoceros on the evidence of the tracks of a tapir, which they carelessly mistake for the tracks of a rhinoceros ; the track of the latter, which distinctly shows the broad blunt-ended centre toe-nail, should never be confounded with the track of a tapir, which is smaller,

and which has four toes on the front foot—a rhinoceros has only three—the largest toe-nail on the fore foot being much more pointed than the centre toe-nail of a rhinoceros.

Tapir are fairly common over the centre Peninsula, but are not likely to be sought after by sportsmen. They carry no trophies, are extremely shy, and although interesting animals can scarcely be classed as “Big Game.”



V.

MUSEUMS.

By

H. C. ROBINSON,

Director of Museums and Fisheries.

The Government of the Federated Malay States maintains two Museums, one, the older institution, at Taiping, and a second, more recently founded, at Kuala Lumpur.

The Perak Museum is devoted principally to local ethnography, while the Selangor branch specializes in biology.

The exhibited collections of both Museums are restricted, with a few ethnographical exceptions, to material illustrative of the Malay Peninsula and the small islands off its shores. By an examination of the cases, therefore, the visitor may, when the installation is complete, get some idea of the Malay people and the primitive races inhabiting the area mentioned and of its natural history, without the confusion which might be brought about through the introduction of extraneous objects.

The department publishes the "Journal of the Federated Malay States Museums," now in its ninth volume, which consists of papers, frequently illustrated, on the people, zoology, botany and geology of the Peninsula and neighbouring countries.

PERAK MUSEUM

Revised by

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The Perak State Museum, which owes its inception to the late Sir Hugh Low, G.C.M.G., third British Resident of Perak, was started in 1883 in a building of very modest proportions, which has been added to with the growth of the collections until, at the present date, it covers a very considerable area. The latest addition, comprising a two-storied block 80 feet by 40 feet, for the local ethnographical exhibits, was completed in 1902.

The scope of the Museum is the illustration, with some attempt at completeness, of the zoology, geology, mineralogy and ethnography of the Malay Peninsula from the Isthmus of Kra to Singapore, though as yet no great advance has been made in the formation of collections from the more purely Siamese portion of this area, the Museum being primarily Malayan. In the case of ethnography—in which the Museum specializes—it has not been considered desirable that the productions of people of Malayan stock now resident in, but not indigenous to, the Peninsula should be rigidly excluded, as this would rule out some of the most beautiful objects of Malayan craftsmanship found in the country; but the zoological collections are strictly confined to the limits above referred to.

From its foundation until 1908 the Museum was under the direction of Mr. Leonard Wray, I.S.O., and it is to his untiring energy and zeal that the State of Perak owes what is universally admitted to be the finest collection extant illustrative of Malay life and customs.

As one enters the Museum, the table cases on the right of the loggia are devoted to the exhibition of varieties of rubbers, guttas and gums, both native and introduced—amongst which may be noted gutta-percha produced from several species of trees indigenous to Perak—and early samples of Para rubber from the Government Plantations and private estates in the vicinity of Taiping. In the adjacent wall case are shown coils of various kinds of rattans and bamboos from the Perak forests, but these objects do not lend themselves readily to satisfactory display as museum specimens.

On the left is shown a comprehensive series of tin specimens, both lode and alluvial, from all parts of the Peninsula, and also from other stanniferous areas of the world. The wall case contains illustrations of the primitive appliances used in the open-cast mines of the Peninsula.

The front hall of the main building is devoted to the mineralogical and geological collections and to a series of economic vegetable and other products. The table-cases on the left contain a carefully selected series of minerals found, or likely to be found, in the Malay Peninsula. Many of these specimens are of exotic origin, but are placed on exhibition in preference to

ones obtained in the Peninsula, as being more typical of the mineral they represent than those available locally. Attention may be drawn to the very fine series of gold ores from all parts of the Peninsula, to the corundum from Kinta, a waste product of the tinfields, which is found in large quantities in certain parts of the State, and to the small and extremely imperfect sapphires from Chenderiang in the Batang Padang District.

The table-cases on the right of the entrance exhibit a representative collection of the botanical products of Perak, including many introductions which have never passed beyond the experimental stage. Beneath the windows is shown a remarkably fine set of models of most of the commoner fruits and vegetables, which have been carefully coloured, and are exceptionally true to life. The frames above the table-cases contain dried specimens of plants of medicinal or economic value.

The wall-cases in this hall are partly devoted to a display of mammalian and reptilian skeletons, but in some of them are examples of metal work, specimens of economic minerals, agricultural products, and timber-woods; while two contain a collection of the larger birds of prey, and here may be noted two species of vulture which are now rarely found further south than Taiping. Amongst the skulls shown is that of an elephant, at one time in captivity, which derailed a train between Tapah Road and Teluk Anson, and was killed in so doing. The tusks are amongst the heaviest recorded for the Peninsula

elephant, which does not approach the Indian form in this respect. The room to the right of the front hall contains the Curator's office and the Museum's Library, the nucleus of which is the fine collection of works relating to Malaya, purchased from the executors of Noel Denison, for many years Superintendent of Lower Perak. The Library is fairly comprehensive, and the majority of books in it can be borrowed under the usual conditions.

The long gallery on the left of the front hall contains the zoological collections, the birds on the right and the mammals on the left. With the exception of the sea and shore birds the collection is fairly complete, and contains over four hundred of the 630 species known to occur in the Malay Peninsula. Many of the species not shown present only slight and technical differences from the exhibited forms, and, of these, specimens are in most cases available for examination at Kuala Lumpur by those sufficiently interested. Amongst the larger forms of birds that merit attention are the numerous species of horn-bills with their quaintly-formed beaks and apparently ill-balanced heads. Pigeons in variety are represented, and the majority of the game birds known to occur in Perak, though it should be noted that the peacock is now rarely, if ever, found further down river than Kuala Kangsar. One of the handsomest of the Malayan birds is the green magpie, not uncommon on the hills above Taiping. A pair from the Selangor Mountains is exhibited in the absence of local specimens.

On the opposite side and down the centre of the hall is arranged a very complete series of the mammals of the Peninsula, from the apes and monkeys to the rodents and edentates. Many of the larger animals in this division are some of the finest examples of the taxidermist's art extant, amongst which may be specially mentioned a *krá* monkey, a tiger, and the mountain goats or *kambing gerun*, the adult of which was the first ever obtained in the Malay States by an European, having been shot by Sir Frank Swettenham as it was crossing a landslip below "The Cottage" on the Larut Hills. Other fine pieces of work are a tapir from the Matang District and a two-horned rhinoceros from near Sitiawan on the Dindings border. A nearly complete set of the squirrels of the Peninsula is also shown, from a species smaller than a house rat to one as big as a cat in size, which does great damage in the durian orchards at the fruiting season.

Among the carnivores a specimen of the clouded tiger or *rimau duhan* is noteworthy for its extreme rarity in the Malay Peninsula, though it is said to be of fairly common occurrence in Borneo and parts of Sumatra.

The exhibited bats include several examples of the Malay *kěluang* or flying fox, the largest of the order, having a spread of wing, in full-grown specimens, of nearly five feet. The scaly anteater or *tenggiling*, the one animal of which, according to Malay folk-tales, the lordly elephant stands in terror, is also on view in several characteristic attitudes. It is met with in numbers in the flatter parts of the country, and is

much sought after as a tasty delicacy by Klings and certain Chinese who also value it medicinally.

The rest of the zoological exhibits in this gallery comprise a collection of butterflies—stored in drawers below one of the table-cases—a small series of crustacea, and a more extensive one of land and sea-shells, while there are also some stuffed specimens and casts of snakes and other reptilia, including tortoises, some crocodiles, and a few lizards.

Among the butterflies, attention may be called to the large black and green bird-winged butterfly *Ornithoptera brookeana*, one of the most gorgeous of the tribe, which is not uncommon in Kinta and Batang Padang, and of which the female, a much duller insect than its mate, was at one time so extremely rare in collections that out of two thousand captured by a German naturalist only eight were of this sex.

Contrary to popular belief, the large majority of snakes found in this country are non-poisonous, and if we exclude the sea-snakes, which are all venomous, only five deadly species are met with, though the pit vipers of the genus *Lachesis* can inflict a bite which has serious, though not fatal, consequences. The deadly species are the Hamadryad, or King Cobra, and the Cobra of which two varieties, a black and a turmeric-coloured one, are found in Perak, and three species of krait, none of which are at all common. Russel's Viper, which accounts for a large proportion of the deaths from snake bite in India, does not extend to Malaya.

Far more formidable to human life is the Estuarine

Crocodile (*Crocodilus porosus*), of which several examples are on view.

Another species of much smaller average size (*Tomistoma schlegeli*), characterised by its long and narrow snout inhabits the upper reaches of the rivers, beyond tidal influence, and is as a rule harmless to man, feeding, as it does on fish. It is allied to the Gavial of the Indian Rivers.

Among the tortoises and turtles exhibited should be observed the large specimens of snapping turtles (*Pelochelys* and *Trionyx*) which are capable of inflicting most serious bites, their jaws being exceptionally powerful. The *tuntong*, or river tortoise (*Batagur baska*), the eggs of which are in Perak a royal monopoly and afford a motive for very enjoyable picnics, is also on view.

The passage which leads from the zoological hall into the newer portion of the building is floored with marble slabs obtained from quarries at Ipoh. The wall-cases on the right hand contain pictures illustrating the physical characters of the Negritos, the Sakai, and the Jakun—pagans of three distinct races who inhabit the wilder parts of the Peninsula,—while one case as yet remains vacant, but will eventually be filled with types of the Malays. In those on the other wall may be noted photographs of the houses built by the pagans, and examples of their blowpipes, dart-quivers, and bows and arrows—the last used only by the Negrito and mixed Negrito tribes—the specimens being arranged with a view to showing their differences.

The most interesting objects, however, in these cases are the relics of ancient cave-dwellers which have been obtained from various localities in the Federated States. The majority of these exhibits are recent acquisitions, and may ultimately be found to throw considerable light on the past history of the Peninsula. Who these cave-dwellers were yet remains in doubt, but some of them certainly understood the art of working stone by chipping; and there seems to be reason for thinking that they were also able to manufacture polished stone implements and rough pottery. When a more detailed examination of the human remains which have been discovered has been made, an advance in this direction may, perhaps, be possible. Some of the pagan tribes at the present day—for example, certain groups of the Negritos and of the Sakai-Jakun of Pahang—still occasionally lodge in caves and rock-shelters for short periods; and it is not altogether unlikely that the cave-dwellers may have been the ancestors of one or more of the pagan races.

Leaving the passage, we enter the rooms containing the ethnographical collections, which, as previously stated, are the strongest feature of the Perak Museum.

In the lower gallery, a series of cases extending along the left wall of the room contain specimens of the handicrafts and weapons of the pagan races, the exhibits—starting from the near end—comprising articles made by the Negritos of Upper Perak and parts of Pahang, and the mixed Negrito-Sakai tribes of Upper Perak and the Kuala Kangsar District. Passing these we come to the manufactures and

weapons of the pure Sakai tribes of the Kinta District and of Batang Padang, and then to those of the mixed Sakai-Jakun tribes of Selangor, Negri Sembilan, and parts of Pahang, which shade off into the Jakun (pagan Malay) tribes of Johore and South Pahang, whose technology is also represented by various examples. A row of adjacent table-cases holds smaller articles made by the people of the wild tribes, such as bamboo combs, bracelets, rings, necklaces, hair-pins, and other articles of adornment.

The most noteworthy exhibits on this floor, however, which are arranged in other table-cases, are the unrivalled collections of prehistoric stone and iron implements and the beautiful series of Malayan silk fabrics.

The stone implements are largely from three collections made by Perak officers, viz., Sir Hugh Low, from all parts of Perak, Mr. Bozzolo, chiefly from Upper Perak and Kelantan, and Mr. Hale from Kinta.

The shapes and types represented are very numerous, from roughly chipped and clumsy adzes to thin and most exquisitely finished and polished spatulae and axes. Especially beautiful are the axes and chisels fashioned from a material resembling agate which are found in Upper Perak and Kelantan. Nothing definite is known of the origin of these implements, which are very widely distributed throughout the Peninsula. In view of their high finish and the perfect condition in which many of them are met with, it is not impossible that a proportion of them were made by a race comparatively advanced in

culture, and were intended for ceremonial rather than practical use. If any of these implements are the work of ancestors of the present wild tribes of the country, they must, in some ways, have reached a much higher level of civilization than their descendants.

In an adjacent case will be found a curious bell-shaped object of bronze, one of three from near Klang in Selangor, which is possibly Buddhist and intended for a bell, and also a bronze celt similar in type to others recently found in Burmah and Yunnan. With the exception of two fairly recent Buddhas, of which one is exhibited at the end of the room, and two other celts like that mentioned above, these are the only bronze objects as yet found in the Peninsula, or, to speak more accurately, in that portion under British influence.

The iron implements near by are also widely spread over the Peninsula and are usually associated with the ancient workings of some race prior to the Malays. They are well known to natives as *tulang hantu marwas*, the relics of a gigantic ape whose fore-arm was of iron and has therefore persisted. Some of the specimens exhibited are casts from originals, which are too fragile and decayed for exhibition.

In the same case will be seen the model of a curious tomb made of thin slabs of granite, which was found at Changkat Mentri, a small hill near the Bernam River in the South of Perak, and, in an upright case in the centre of the hall, some of the actual slabs from it. Nothing was found in this tomb

with the exception of some coarse pottery and a few cornelian beads. A former Perak Dynasty is said to have had its capital in the vicinity, but the type of burial here indicated is evidently non-Malayan and pre-Mohammedan.

The silks and embroideries are contained in a long series of table-cases and comprise practically every fabric known from the Peninsula, though several, of course, are exotic in origin. The work from Batu Bara on the Coast of Sumatra, opposite to Perak, consisting of silk in various shades of red interwoven with gold thread, deserves special attention. Its manufacture has, to a certain extent, been introduced into the Malay States from its place of origin, and it is in great demand among the wealthier classes of Malays for use on ceremonial occasions. Space will not permit of more than a passing reference to the *kain limau*, or "tie and dye," work of Kelantan and Trengganu, the hideous but fashionable *kain pelangai* of Singapore, the heavy *kain mastuli* of Trengganu and Pahang, and the delicate embroidered veils or *tudong kepala*, an introduction from Egypt and Arabia: finally the *kain telepok*, at one time made throughout the Peninsula, but now only manufactured in two or three scattered places, demands notice. *Kain telepok* consists of a substantial cotton cloth, usually of Bugis origin, on which is impressed, by means of a wooden stamp, elaborate patterns in gold leaf, the surface being subsequently glazed and calendered by means of friction with a cowry shell. The fabric was at one time much used by persons of

rank and wealth, but is now falling out of fashion. The dies and implements employed in its manufacture are also shown.

Another section of the same row of table-cases contains Malay embroidery of various types, and among these specimens should be noted two very beautifully worked ceremonial mats, a dish-cover and a box for chewing requisites in an embroidered wrapping, all of which are from Kota Lama Kiri, a village near Kuala Kangsar, which is famous for its embroidery work.

The wall-cases on the right of the room hold exhibits of Malay basketry, mats, toys, and ceremonial objects, such as are used at marriages, harvest festivals, and prayer-meetings ; while above them are to be noted two excellent examples of the better type of elephant howdah as used in Upper Perak.

A table-case in the centre towards the end of the room also contains toys, and another, examples of Malay drugs and narcotics, together with appliances for smoking opium and *sireh* chewing.

This brings us to the foot of the stairs where are displayed instruments and materials which the Malays use in ritual or other operations, such as tooth-filing, tooth-blackening, and circumcision.

On the wall of the stairs are to be noted various types of paddles and oars used in sea and river boats, while fixed against banisters on the right are two of the long æolian bamboos—another example is to be seen downstairs over the wall-cases containing Sakai objects—which the pagan tribes of Selangor and

Negri Sembilan tie to tree-tops near their houses, so that sweet rising and falling notes are heard whenever there is a breeze.

On the landing above are exhibited old Malay spears of various types, and relics from the sites of old Dutch settlements on the Perak River.

From the landing we enter the upper ethnographical room which contains the most valuable portions of the Malay collections.

In the shallow wall-cases nearest the door is an extensive series of spears, mostly obtained many years ago, and some of them of bizarre and curious forms, which no longer appear to be used. Among them may be noted the ceremonial spear (*tombak benderang*), which is borne by the messengers of the rajas and greater chiefs.

Spears with a cross piece to prevent the animal, when transfixed, from forcing its way up the shaft, and used in tiger driving, are also in the collection, as is a double bladed form known in Pahang and elsewhere as *tipu daya*.

The bulk of the table-cases in this room are filled with a very fine collection of Malayan weapons, which is probably one of the most complete in existence, though there are some gaps.

The kris, the distinctively national weapon, is represented by a large number of specimens showing broadly nearly every type of blade, handle and sheath current in the Peninsula, ranging from the short and insignificant *kris pichit*, forged by the bare fingers of its maker and endowed with magical

properties, to the elaborate 47 waved kris, formerly an heirloom of the Sultans of Lingga.

Straight krises, krises with few or many waves, long krises, more especially distinctive of the southern and eastern portions of the Peninsula but found also in Perak, krises with the cross hilt forged in one with the blade (*ganja iras*) and therefore specially valued by Malays, are all displayed. To the ordinary observer, perhaps the most interesting form is that common in Patani and Rhaman, which is known as the *kris pekaka* or kingfisher kris, from its handle, which is elaborately carved into the semblance of a grotesque bird with a large beak. The blades of this type of kris are, or should be, always straight, and the weapon is provided with a very long sheath in order, it is said, that the wearer may at a moment's notice kick the blade into his hand by a blow of his heel. The end of the sheath is always rounded and not provided with a squared end-piece as in many other forms.

Next in abundance to the kris comes the dagger known as the *tumbok lada*, or pepper crusher, so called, as a Malay explains, because it is sharp and biting. In contradistinction to other forms of dagger the back of the blade in this form is always curved, not straight as in a *badek*, but the distinction is rather fine. The handles of these weapons as well as the sheaths are often finely carved, and ornamented with precious metals. A specially handsome type with the handle in the semblance of a cockatoo's head is characteristic of the *mukim* of Sayong, near Kuala Kangsar, and betrays Bugis influence

Some fine specimens with the carved and pierced buffalo horn sheaths and handles are from Negri Sembilan.

Other forms of knives are known as *golok*, of which the main features are that the blades taper to a point and the handles end in knobs. The blade is generally larger than in a *tumbok lada*, and, like that weapon, and unlike the *badek*, is nearly always undamascened, though this rule, like any other, has its exceptions. Variants, differing mainly in the form of the handle and the sheath, are found throughout the Peninsula, and are qualified by the name of their State, such as *golok Rembau*, *golok Kedah*, etc.

More specialized weapons, possibly of Indian origin but also found in Java, are daggers known as *lawi ayam* and *beludau*. These vary greatly in size and in the degree of curvature, some being nearly straight and others almost semi-circular. The cutting edge is on the inner or on both curvatures. The smaller ones, of the curved type, are furnished with a hole for the insertion of the finger and are used with an upwards ripping action. Their mere possession was until recently a penal offence in Java.

Passing from weapons of the dagger type, we come to swords, *i.e.*, weapons which are used with the edge and not with the point, the rapier being practically unknown in Malaya, though one or two imitative forms of the nature of a sword-stick have been met with.

Four broad divisions can be distinguished, and it

is doubtful if any of them are indigenous in the sense that the *Kris* is, while some are certainly exotic.

The four types are :—

The *pedang*.

kelewang or *gedubong*,

chenengkas,

sundang.

The first is purely an European model and owes its introduction to the Arabs or the Portuguese. Its blade may be either straight or curved, but the handle is always formed in the shape of a cup for the reception of the Eucharistic wine and furnished with a cross hilt. Dutch irregular troops were armed with this weapon, and specimens with the monogram of the Dutch East India Company and dates ranging round 1760 are frequently met with in the Peninsula.

The *kelewang* is a short heavy sword, single edged and usually straight, which has reached the Peninsula from the West *via* Acheen, and is only occasionally met with.

A *chenengkas* is similar to it, but has a much longer blade, which is not infrequently slightly curved. Its handle is usually of buffalo-horn, elaborately carved and ornamented with chased plates of silver and silver bands. It does not appear to be fitted with any special sheath, but only with one of a makeshift character. This type reaches its maximum development in Sri Menanti, which it reached *via* Menangkabau. It is not a common weapon in Perak.

The fourth type, the *sundang*, is intermediate between the *kris* and the sword, the floccation of the edge near the hilt, known in the *kris* as the *bunga kachang*, is also present, and, in addition to the blade, is fixed by a strap or bridle of either silver or iron. The blade is double edged and may be either straight or waved, and is frequently fluted and engraved, though I have never seen a damascened specimen. The handle is of bone, ivory or wood, or, in some Trengganu specimens, of metal, and is usually in the shape of a bird's head with a crest: it is frequently bound with silver or brass wire. It is provided with a polished wood sheath often upturned at the end and ornamented towards the hilt with bone or ivory. It is not a common weapon in the West Coast States, and probably reached the Peninsula with the Bugis or the Illanuns. Many are made in Trengganu, which has been termed the Birmingham of Malaya, but the finest specimens are from Borneo.

There are many other Malayan weapons which cannot be here described, and it is in some cases difficult to say where the line should be drawn between a weapon proper and an implement, or a wood knife, of which almost every district has its own particular pattern. Thus the *chandong* of Patani is totally distinct from the *parang* of Pekan, and that again from the form used in Lower Perak, though all are intended and used for identical purposes.

A weapon or implement, for it may be both indifferently, peculiar to the northern States, which has probably found its way from Siam, is the *luding*, of

which many varieties exist and find representation in the Museum. *Lading* may be either straight or strongly curved, with projections on the back or without, but nearly all agree in being made of damascened iron and in having the blade broadest at, or near, the tip and regularly narrowed towards the hilt. Nearly all the weight of metal is in the backs of the blades, and they are so balanced that they form terribly effective weapons. They are generally provided with a turned handle and ornamented with a tassel of cord or hair, and are not furnished with sheaths.

Leaving the weapons we come to the work of the Malay silver-smith, which is certainly the most attractive and the most sought after of the art products of Malaya.

The collection of plain silver exhibited has been carefully selected from the large amount in the possession of the Museum, so as to show only what is fairly typical Malay work. The degree of merit necessarily varies, but it is hoped that Chinese imitations have, for the most part, been excluded. As has been explained by one of the latest writers on the subject, the scope of the Malay artist in the precious metals was, as a rule, limited to small pieces of no great intrinsic value, and it is in these that we find the most characteristic specimens of the art. Occasionally, though, it might happen that a specially skilled worker was employed by some chief and supplied with material for more ambitious work. A section of one of the cases is devoted to large and costly pieces,

which, in the absence of a definite history, are considered to have been produced under some such conditions. Work of this kind, however, though often superior both in design, execution, and finish to the average, is often abnormal and unduly influenced by foreign ideas.

The ordinary articles of silver-work are strictly limited in character and are confined to six or seven stock designs, amongst which may be mentioned the shallow silver bowl known as *batil*, with its more ambitious and elaborate variant the covered bowl or *batil bertutup*, small tobacco-boxes (*chelepa*), round in the case of Perak specimens, but octagonal in the more southern States; sets of covered bowls for *sireh* and its concomitants, repoussé-work ends for pillows used on ceremonial occasions (*muka bantal*), large waist buckles (*pěnding*) and, more rarely, plates. Of all of these good typical examples are shown, but the Museum is at present somewhat deficient in *sireh*-sets, which are often furnished with gold filigree work centres and are therefore rather costly.

Patterns are equally limited in number and very conventionalised.

In pure Malayan work they are invariably derived from plants, though in specimens from the borders of the Siamese States animal forms such as birds and deer are not infrequently introduced.

In Perak specimens from the south often show strong South Indian influence, while those from Kedah are equally affected by Siamese canons, so that it is to Kuala Kangsar and the neighbouring down

river *mukims* to Bandar, that we must look for the true Malayan patterns.

In addition to the ordinary plain silver work three varieties of niello are exhibited, none of which are now produced in the Federated Malay States.

The first, which is much sought after by collectors, is known as *chutam*, and was originally made in the old Malay kingdom of Ligor, where it is said that the art is now practically extinct.

The material is silver, on which the pattern is produced in the ordinary way in fairly high relief. The hollows are then filled in with a black paste consisting of a mixture of metallic sulphides and the piece subjected to heat. It is then apparently polished to a uniform surface, the light parts of the pattern accented with the graving tool and finally gilded. In some pieces contrast is obtained by leaving portions of the work ungilded, so that we have a pattern in three colours, gold, silver and lustrous black. Occasionally, further ornamentation is effected by punch marks.

The patterns used are elaborate, quite different from those in true Malayan work; beast and bird forms are freely used, and the whole fabric is obviously Indian in inspiration.

The articles commonly seen in this ware are large bowls (*batil*), stands with circular or petal-like margins, betel boxes (square and round) and kettles. Specimens of all of these are in the Perak Museum cases. Sword scabbards and spear mounts as well as plates are also made.

The second kind of niello is *jadam*, which at one time was not improbably made in the Malay Peninsula, as it certainly is to the present day in parts of Sumatra; it differs from *chutam* only in the absence of gilding and graving, in the type of pattern and in the variety of articles made in it.

The pattern is usually phyllomorphic but geometrical and magical designs sometimes occur. It is mainly used for buckles and small tobacco boxes, but plates and other small articles such as silk winders are occasionally found. *Chutam*, on the other hand, is apparently never used for buckles.

The third variety is very rare and possibly quite extra-Malayan in origin and is known as *suasa hitam*. The only things apparently made in it are small tobacco boxes and belt buckles. The material is copper, which by submission to some oxidising process has acquired an uniform black surface. The pattern is deeply cut and filled in with beaten gold. The specimens in the local museums are from Pekan, Pahang and the pawnshops of Malacca, and unfinished examples have been obtained from the Patani States. It is suggested by some that they are Cambodian in origin, but this is probably not the case, as the shapes and ornamentation are quite Malayan.

A number of fine specimens of the Malayan craftsman's work in gold and silver have been added to the collection in recent years, and among them mention must be made of a couple of beautiful and heavy gold waist-belt clasp (*pending*); silver trays, stands, tobacco

boxes, and plates from the Rhio Archipelago ; and a considerable number of examples of gold and silver filigree-work, comprising gold brooches and a ring from Negri Sembilan, gold pendants (*agok*) from Perak, another (of Patani type) in silver-filigree, and some of the large obsolete ear-studs, formerly worn by Malay women of the "Patani States" and Upper Perak.

The exhibits of Malayan jewellery, now fairly complete, which include bracelets, rings, anklets, pendants, ornaments worn at marriages, and other objects, are contained in table-cases adjacent to the more general collections of silverware, while in the row at the end of the gallery are to be seen brass buckles, *sireh* sets, and a collection of native coins, amongst which the pierced tin and pewter coins of Patani, Trengganu and Kelantan, and the clumsy "hat-money" of Pahang, are of interest.

A set of grotesque representations of various animals in tin is also on exhibition. In a learned treatise by Sir Richard Temple, part of which is devoted to objects of this kind, an attempt is made to demonstrate that they were used as money, but, in view of the scarcity of testimony on this subject, a verdict of "not proven" must be returned. Some of them were probably toys pure and simple, but others, the so-called "mountains," appear to have been used as weights to hold down the curtains of the bridal couch in Malay marriage ceremonies.

The wall-cases of this room are filled with the remainder of Malay collections and various sections

deal with fire and light, cooking, personal property, measures of capacity, rice planting, harvesting, general agriculture, fishing and trapping, pottery, wood-carving, music, plays and magic.

In that which contains objects connected with fire and light, the graceful hanging brass lamps of classical design should be noted, as well as the primitive types of apparatus used in obtaining fire, such as the rattan saw and block of soft wood. A most interesting implement too, the *gobek api*, in which tinder is ignited by means of compressed air, is also represented by several specimens.

Further on attention may be drawn to the peculiar reaping-knives (*tuai*) used by the Malays, and also to the *kuku kambing*, an ingenious instrument with which bunches of seedlings are seized and thrust into the ground, when planting out rice. Worthy of remark, too, is the model irrigation-wheel, as are as well the many cleverly constructed traps for catching wild animals.

In two cases on the right-hand side of the room, where the pottery is installed, a primitive attempt at a potting wheel may be seen. and adjacent to the pottery a fine series of carvings which are mostly from Negri Sembilan, where Sumatran influence is paramount. In the cases nearer to the door are a set of the leather puppets used in the *wayang kulit* or shadow play—an institution which in its peninsular form does not flourish further south than Kuala Kangsar,—while for purposes of comparison there is shown, on a large hanging panel, a set of the leather

figures used in Java, and a variety of masks used by the clowns (*pran*) of the *ma'yong*, an entertainment which is half dance, half play. Various musical instruments are displayed near by, some of them being of types found only in Malaysia and Indo-China, while the last two cases are filled with magical apparatus of various kinds, amongst which offerings to the evil spirits to avert or remove ill-fortune are the most prominent.



SELANGOR MUSEUM.

Revised by

C. BODEN KLOSS,

Assistant Director of Museums.

The Selangor Museum is considerably later in date than the Perak one, and owes its origin to a body of Kuala Lumpur residents, chief amongst whom was the late Captain Syers, First Commissioner of Police, Federated Malay States, who were interested in natural history and ethnology. They were assisted by a small grant from the Selangor Government, and the Museum thus started was at first housed in the old Government Offices above the padang, and later on in the building that was once the astana on Weld's Hill. It was not until 1898 that an European Curator was appointed, and most of the natural history specimens prior to that date have disappeared owing to faulty preparation, with the exception of the fine series of *sěládang*

frontlets obtained by Captain Syers. The foundation of the existing ethnographical collection, however, was laid, and many interesting weapons and specimens of Malay silver purchased out of the limited funds available.

Mr. A. L. Butler, now Superintendent of Game Preservation to the Soudan Government, who was appointed Curator in 1898 and held office until the commencement of 1900, commenced the formation of what is now the finest collection of Malay birds extant. He was succeeded by Dr. D. Duncker, who remained for a year, devoting his attention principally to the fresh water fishes, of which he accumulated a considerable series.

Towards the end of 1906 the western wing of the present building at the entrance to the Public Gardens on the Damansara Road was completed and a commencement made in the installation of the collections. In 1914 the Museum was enlarged by the addition of the central hall and the eastern wing.

The entrance hall contains an exhibit of mammals, prominent among which is a cow elephant presented by Dr. W. H. Lucy, who shot it in his compound on the edge of the Public Gardens a mile away from the Museum. It has been mounted by Mr. E. Seimund, Assistant Curator and Taxidermist, who used the skeleton as a framework. It is believed that this is the first instance in which so large a piece of taxidermic work has been successfully undertaken in Asia.

A tapir and a two-horned rhinoceros (*A. sumatrensis*) are to be seen in cases in the centre of

the hall, and a tiger to the right of the entrance with other carnivora. Amongst the monkeys in the wall-cases should be noted the Siamang, occurring in the Peninsula and Sumatra only, and also one of the largest specimens of the berok or coconut monkey (*Macaca nemestrina*) ever shot. It was obtained on Weld's Hill within Kuala Lumpur town limits, and from its ferocious disposition had long been a terror to Chinese woodcutters and others, several of whom had been severely injured by it. Other interesting mammals are a dwarf pig from the island of Terutau, north of Penang, and a mountain goat, or *serow*, from the limestone crags near Ipoh. The other wall-cases are given up to the exhibition of smaller mounted animals, while in the table-cases are placed series of skins of insectivora and rodents illustrating the various sub-species occurring in the Peninsula area which differ too little from each other externally to serve any useful purpose mounted.

Apart from the exhibited specimens the Museum possesses the largest study series of Malayan vertebrates extant, which may be examined on application at the office by anyone seriously interested in zoology. Of the 270 races of mammals known from our region, only about thirty, mostly small bats, are unrepresented in the collections.

The first gallery in the older portion of the building, to the left of the central hall, contains the birds and reptiles, the former placed in wall-cases and the latter down the centre.

With a few unimportant exceptions, every bird

known to occur within the limits of the Colony of the Straits Settlements or the Federated Malay States is represented by one or more stuffed examples, while, for persons desirous of more minute study, specimens preserved as skins away from the harmful action of light are available on reference to the Curator. The collection throughout is labelled with the English, Latin and in some cases the Malay name, and explanatory labels are provided for each group and sub-group.

Attention may be drawn to the collection of sea and shore birds, to the hawks and eagles and to the woodpeckers, all of which are very complete and contain very rare specimens.

About 630 forms of birds inhabit our area, and of them the Museum has possessed examples of practically six hundred. The desiderata are principally sea and shore or migratory species or else forms occurring in the extreme north only—a district belonging to Siam that has not yet been exhaustively explored by the department.

Above the wall-cases are exhibited the antlers of deer and horns of *serow*, buffalo and *sěladang*, amongst the latter being the record pair for the Malay Peninsula which were obtained by the late Mr. Da Pra near Kuala Pilah in Negri Sembilan; together with some fine examples obtained by the late Captain Syers, who was killed by a *sěladang*.

Amongst the mounted reptiles are shown two species of python, or *ular sawa*, the larger of which (*P. reticulatus*) measured twenty-two feet four inches when

brought to the Museum, though an authenticated local specimen of thirty feet is on record. The smaller species or painted python (*P. curtus*) is known to the Malays as *ular sawa darah*, or blood python, from its extremely vivid hue when alive. There are also on view a cobra and a hamadryad which measured nearly fourteen feet, but in Perak there is a specimen more than sixteen feet long. This is the most deadly of local snakes and next to it is shown a harmless species (*Zaocys carinatus*) which superficially closely resembles it.

Casts and mounted specimens of other snakes, lizards and frogs are shown elsewhere, together with two medium-sized examples of the common crocodile: but of the narrow-snouted fish-eating *gharial* the Museum possesses only young individuals.

All the tortoises known from the Peninsula are exhibited in table-cases, and in a large central case is a fairly complete and systematically arranged set of lizards, snakes and frogs in spirit.

The energies of the staff have been up to the present largely devoted to the acquisition and study of the vertebrate land mammals, and collections of invertebrates are not yet on exhibition, with the exception of the butterflies and one or two less ornamental groups. These will be found in the first new gallery to the right of the entrance hall, which will be eventually entirely taken up with an exhibition of insects.

In the corner hall beyond are placed a small but fairly complete collection of local minerals and rocks, arranged and labelled by the Government Geologist; amongst which are some slabs of Ipoh marble, very

fine specimens of lode tin and a few exceptionally perfect crystals of cassiterite. There is also on view a case of well-executed models of local fruit and vegetables.

In this hall will in future be exhibited also the collections of spiders, centipedes, millipedes and crustaceans, and some of the latter are already in place.

The back gallery adjacent is intended in the main for marine exhibits, and at present contains a set of mounted fishes, some shells and corals; also, in the wall-cases on the right are mounted specimens or casts with skeletons of porpoises, and the skeleton of an Indian pilot-whale (*Globiocephalus indicus*), one of a school stranded at Jeram. On the right are the marine turtles, including the tortoise-shell and edible species, as well as an example of the leathery turtle (*Dermochelys coriacea*), the largest of local chelonians and very rare. The specimen, a female, was captured at night on the beach of Tioman Island when coming up from the sea to deposit her eggs, some of which are also shown.

The hall and back gallery on the left contains the ethnographical collections, which cannot attempt to vie with the larger and more complete ones of the Perak Museum. The Selangor ones are, however, in some respects, supplemental to those of the older institution, as they are relatively richer in the weapons and other possessions of the Negri Sembilan Malays. There is, however, a fine selection of spears and weapons, including the *kris panjang*, which is not so distinctively a Perak weapon as it is of Sri Menanti

and Sungei Ujong, while the peculiar sword known as *chenengkas* bulks more largely in the Selangor cases than it does in Perak.

A fine collection of the black and silver enamel known as *Jadam*, originally from the Menangkabau States of Central Sumatra, but largely found in Negri Sembilan, is on exhibition, while there are also a few choice pieces of the famous Ligor ware alluded to in the account of the Perak Collections.

The commoner articles of the Malay silversmith are well represented by typical specimens, but there has been no opportunity of acquiring any of the large pieces, which are so prominent a feature in the Perak Museum, though there are a few plates which are really excellent specimens of old Malay silver. There is also a small collection of personal ornaments, chiefly from Negri Sembilan, which include a good series of chased waist buckles in brass, copper, silver and wood; these objects are yearly becoming rarer and more difficult to obtain in good condition and undebased style.

The other ethnographical exhibits—stone implements, pottery and brass ware, musical instruments, sarongs, mat-work, basketry, and weaving apparatus, decorative objects, traps, models of boats, agricultural implements, and household utensils, games, money, blowpipes, quivers and other artifacts of the wild tribes—are in the main replicas of what may be seen on a more extensive scale in Perak. Much of the brass, which is not a favourite material with the Malay artisan, has found its way to the Peninsula from Java

and Sumatra, which produce a large amount of material of this class.

In the alcove off the hall is installed a collection of plates of no particular value brought down from China for trade purposes. Though not believed to be of any considerable age, they have for some time ceased to be imported.



VI.**MINING.**

By the late

F. J. BALLANTYNE DYKES.

Revised to end 1918 by

W. EVRE KENNY, M.I.C.E.,

Senior Warden of Mines, Federated Malay States.

The extensive tinfields of the Federated Malay States offer great opportunities to the miner and prospector possessed of a thorough knowledge of his business and a command of capital. Formerly, tin mining in the shallow deposits of these fields required but little skill or capital. The possession of energy and sound common sense and the ability to make use of them were sufficient in most cases to ensure financial success. The condition of affairs has been considerably altered. As in the case of all alluvial fields where an abundant supply of cheap and efficient labour has been available for many years, the easily worked deposits in Malaya have, to a large extent, been exhausted. The prospector, therefore, must confine his attention to the location of new fields or bring his knowledge of modern mining methods to bear on those deposits which have hitherto failed to prove attractive to others.

The science of mining advances day by day, cheapening the cost of production, thus increasing workable areas. The great advance in the value of tin has also done much to extend the scope of work in the Federated Malay States, for, naturally, propositions which could not be touched in 1896, when the value of tin was £60 per ton, may, with tin worth treble that amount, be highly profitable. The increasing value of tin and the apparent inability of existing sources to supply the world's requirements have, in recent years, done much to attract capitalists, with a result that there is now no difficulty in obtaining financial support for any sound tin proposition.

The foregoing remarks apply only to the exploitation of alluvial deposits, but when it is remembered that from them have been extracted during the last 29 years no less than 1,287,370 tons of tin, the value of which was £167,244,000, it will be clear that there is great scope in the scientific prospecting for the lodes from which this alluvial tin was derived. In the past, lodes have been found. In Pahang, on the East Coast, lode mining has been carried on with some considerable success, but on the West side of the Peninsula, little has been done in the exploitation of tin lodes in the last few years.

Gold quartz mining has been carried on intermittently in the F.M.S., but without any great measure of success. These enterprises were chiefly in Pahang and Negri Sembilan, and, with the exception of that

at Raub, all have closed down. The non-success of these mines was largely due to insufficient capital, in the first instance, to combat difficulties of transport and the recruiting of labour in Pahang, where there were no roads, and when the Western States of Perak, Selangor and Negri Sembilan offered more attractive inducements to the Chinese immigrant. Now these difficulties no longer exist; there is a first-class cart road running through the likely gold-bearing districts of Raub and Kuala Lipis, and labour can easily be attracted.

A word of advice is necessary to a would-be immigrant, and that is, that the Federated Malay States do not offer opportunities like Canada and Australia for the manual labour of the European. All manual labour is done by Asiatics, and the part the European takes is that of ordering labour and superintending operations, but unless the would-be immigrant has the knowledge to superintend and the capacity for controlling labour, the Federated Malay States are a closed door to him.

The chief mineral export of the Federated Malay States is tin and tin ore. At one time these States produced two-thirds of the world's supply of tin, but to-day the output stands at less than 40 per cent. in relation to the world's output. It is impossible to say for how many years the tin deposits have been worked, but it is only within recent years that these States have come into prominence as the largest tin-producing countries in

the world. The Siamese undoubtedly did much mining years ago, as the old workings underground testify. The Malays themselves, natives of these States, did little, and that probably unwillingly and only at the bidding of their respective chiefs. What little they did was surface mining only.

The advent of the Chinese, at an unknown date, was the event that marked these States as rich in tin ore, and attracted them in their tens under Malay rule, and in their thousands under British protection. They were the pioneers who, under Malay rule, and subject to extortion by every petty Malay chief, and in the face of great difficulties and hardships, proved the richness of these lands.

It is only within comparatively recent years that such a machine as a steam pump was introduced. Water-wheels turning the Chinese chain pumps, and buckets lifted laboriously by manual labour, were the only means of keeping the mines dry. With only these crude instruments for unwatering their mines, the Chinese managed to work to depths of thirty and forty feet. Such an operation as prospecting and boring the land was not in those days thought of, it was considered unlucky, and the Chinese miner contented himself, as to the stanniferous qualities of his land, by—as a preliminary—consulting the local Malay *pawang* or wise-man of the village, who charged fees for work that neither he nor anybody else could do. The regularity of the tin deposits in some parts of the country made the business of the *pawang* a simple one. He was far more likely

to be right by foretelling the presence of tin ore than by denying its presence; the richness of the deposit foretold by the *pawang* was generally in exact ratio to the size of the fee. With all the circumstances in his favour, it is little to be wondered at that the *pawang* was believed and trusted and was a man of importance in his village. The European, following in the wake of the Chinaman, has brought his methods and skill to the Malayan tinfields, and modern mining machinery has revolutionised, to a certain extent, the old Chinese methods. That much was good in the Chinese methods is evidenced by the fact that for the working of certain deposits the old methods still continue. The white man has come and watched the Chinaman working and has smiled at his methods; but the white man has often gone with schemes for revolutionising these methods but seldom returns, whilst the methods still remain and enable the Chinaman to prosper—and sometimes grow rich. Their superstitions also remain, and in a mine worked by Chinese labourers on tribute they believe that the wearing of boots and shoes, or the opening of an umbrella in their mine, is likely to drive the tin ore away or bring misfortune to their venture.

The Federated Malay States produced in 1915 over 46,766 tons of metallic tin, which amount is, roughly, 40 per cent. of the world's production of that metal. The value of this product was \$64,414,012 in local currency, or £7,164,968 in sterling. In 1918 the production was 37,370 tons, the value of which was

£12,244,000, the highest value of the production on record. The average price in 1918 was over £327. In a period of thirty years, the production has gradually increased from 26,000 tons, valued at £2,450,000. to the present figures. The rise in the price of the metal in the last ten or fifteen years has stimulated tin-mining enterprise in other parts of the world, but it is satisfactory to record that the Federated Malay States still maintain their pre-eminence as the country producing the largest individual contribution to the world's output.

Of the geology of the Malay Peninsula
Geology. as a whole no authoritative work by a specialist has as yet been written ; but, a few years ago, the Government of the Federated Malay States appointed a properly qualified Government Geologist in the person of Mr. J. B. Scrivenor.

Since his appointment, Mr. Scrivenor has now had many opportunities for conducting researches of a purely scientific character, and has issued many valuable papers on the Geology of various districts. In a short article written by him, we learn that the palæontological evidence already collected points to a close relationship between the Malay Peninsula and the Netherlands Indies on the one hand and with British India on the other.*

It may be stated at the outset that the physical features of the Federated Malay States are strongly

*See 'The Geology and Mining Industry of Ulu Pahang, also of "Kinta District, Perak" (Scrivenor), and "South Perak, North Selangor and Dindings" (Scrivenor and Jones).

marked. A long range of granite mountains stretches like a backbone from north-west to south-east in the Peninsula. Subsidiary granite ranges occur on the west ; on the east, in the centre of Pahang, is the huge isolated Benom Range, also composed of granite. North of this range lies the Tahan Range, composed almost entirely, so far as has yet been ascertained, of quartzites, shale and conglomerate. Another similar but much smaller range, the Semanggol Range, separates Larut from Krian in Perak ; and in Pahang, again, other conglomerate and sandstone outcrops form a long line of foothills to the main granite range. In Kinta, the chief mining district of Perak, a third type, composed of limestone, occurs, and fine samples of this type also occur in Selangor and Pahang. These limestone ranges are remarkable for rugged summits and precipitous sides.

**Occurrence
of Tin Ore.**

This metallic tin is obtained from cassiterite, the mineralogical term for tin ore ($S_n O_2$), by the reduction of this ore to a metallic state either in reverberatory or in the Chinese blast furnaces. Nearly the whole of this tin ore, at least six-tenths, is obtained from the alluvial deposits which are found all over the Federated Malay States, but more particularly in the order named : Perak, Selangor, Pahang and Negri Sembilan. The geological formations in which the tin ore originally occurred were probably granitic and schistose rocks of various kinds. These rocks have been in past ages acted on by atmospheric agencies, whereby they have

become softened and decomposed, resulting in the general denudation of the hill lands and the formation of alluvial deposits by the rearrangement of the constituents of these rocks through the mechanical agency of water.

Much could be written on the occurrence of tin ore in these alluvial fields, but, to be brief, and to show the diversity of modes in which it is found, it may be said that nearly pure tin ore occurs in the form of the finest dust up to lumps of several hundred pounds in weight; it is found in every conceivable form of soil—from the stiffest of clays to the lightest of sands; from the very grass roots down to the depths of 250 feet; in the lowest valleys and on the tops of mountains. It is no exaggeration to say that in any part of the Federated Malay States on the West, anywhere in the thousands of acres of alluvial lands that lie at the base of the granitic hills, it would be the exception not to find a trace of tin ore in the alluvial strata. Underlying these alluvial deposits, and forming the bed-rock, are generally found on the alluvial plains crystalline limestones, slates, schistose, or granitic rocks. In the valleys of the Kinta River, in Perak, and the Klang River, in Selangor, the bedrock is mainly a crystalline limestone of commercial value. Probably one of the most unique formations in which alluvial tin ore is found is the marble cliffs that make such a striking feature in the Kinta scenery. They rise abruptly from the alluvial plains, with vertical sides, and are of the same nature as the limestone forming the bed of the

valley. Whether their present exalted position is owing to volcanic action, which has elevated them above the general level of the country, or whether volcanic action and metamorphism has enabled them to resist the general denudation of the other rocks, must be left to the geologist to solve. Some of these limestone cliffs are riddled with caves, and in these caves alluvial deposits of immense value have been found. Again, in many cases, these cliffs are like a bamboo structure, with a hollow core, the outer shell being of crystalline limestone of varying thickness—the core being partially filled with alluvium highly impregnated with oxide of iron. Access to the core is either through caves or by rope or rotan ladders up and down the faces of these cliffs.

Except on the East Coast, little has been done in the way of exploiting lode or similar formations. The property of the Pahang Consolidated in the Kuantan watershed is the exception, and here a series of lodes striking east and west have been worked for many years with varying results, but at present with conspicuous success.

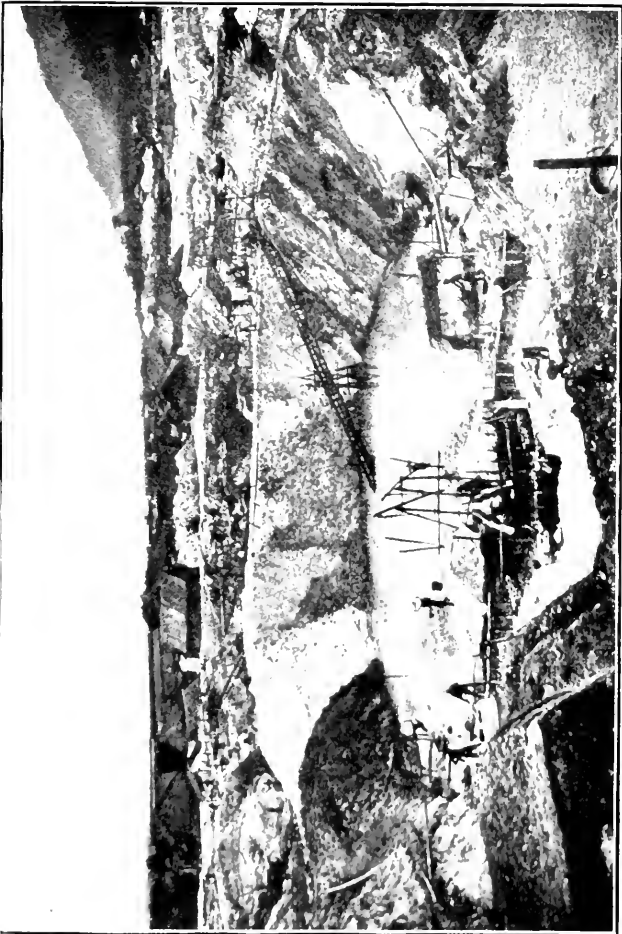
On the West Coast, in the States of Perak, Selangor, and Negri Sembilan, in the limestone, granitic and schistose formations, tin ore is found in the rock *in situ*. In the limestone rocks the tin ore is found in "pipes," but such deposits are irregular and unreliable. In the granitic and schistose rocks in many places on the hills are to be found small irregular veins of tin ore, intermixed with arsenical and sulphurous ores.

There is nothing defined or regular in these deposits, and they pinch out when least expected.

**Methods of
Mining.**

The alluvial deposits are worked by open-cast, by shafting and underground methods, by ground sluicing, or the more scientific method of hydraulic mining or by dredging. The most suitable lands for open-cast mining are broad flats in which the beds (there may be more than one) of tin-bearing ground are regular, and when the tin ore is confined to these particular beds. In opening up new ground for open-cast mining, it is usual, first of all, to cut watercourses round the area to be mined, and to erect substantial banks to prevent floods from entering this area, and to control the water at ordinary times for use in the working of the mine. The first operation necessitates the covering over of unworked land with earth; but when once the first opening is made down to the bottom bed of tin-bearing ground, no further land is covered over, as the spoil from new openings is thrown into the old worked-out areas. The tin-bearing ground, which may be of the nature of a stiff clay, or a gravel consisting of water-worn quartz and granitic pebbles of varying sizes, sand and clay, is brought to the surface for treatment for the separation of the tin ore. The mode of treatment depends on the nature of the tin-bearing ground, and is described later. The overburden, or top soil overlying the tin-bearing ground, and the tin-bearing ground are removed and raised by manual labour, or by a haulage system of trucks running on rails. The open-cast mines are kept dry either by water wheels working Chinese wooden chain

pumps or by ordinary steam or electrical pumps, the depth of the mine deciding the kind of pump most suitable for use. Underground methods are resorted to when the tin-bearing deposits occur at depths which would not make open-cast mining a payable proposition, and when the "lead" is so narrow that the amount of overburden to be removed, and the cost of so doing, would be out of all proportion to the value of the mineral to be won. The method is to sink shafts at varying distances apart, which are all connected below, and to block out the tin-bearing stratum. It is not an economical method, inasmuch as with the expenses entailed by such work for timbers and pumping, only ground of certain payable values can be picked and worked, and not all of this payable ground can even be extracted, as pillars have to be left, and if the ground off the "lead" is running sand, walls on either side of the "lead" may have to be left for protection. The timber, immense quantities of which are used, is also lost and is not recoverable except in certain cases. These cases are—and this fact shows how indisputable it is that such methods are wasteful—where land after it has been riddled with shafts and the richest ground extracted has been worked open-cast with highly successful results. The difference in the price of the metal at the time of underground mining and the subsequent open-cast mining is, of course, a factor; but this factor is largely discounted when it is considered that only the poorer ground, the unpayable and the unworkable ground, is left for the open-cast adventurer to work and make his profit. The incentive to shafting is the smaller capital required, the



KUING COOH, *Photographer*.

CHINESE TIN MINE, KAMPAR.

smaller risk and the quicker return than in the more economical method of open-cast mining.

Ground sluicing and hydraulic mining is carried on in the undulating lands off the valleys, the spurs of the main ranges and in the gullies of the highest of the main ranges.

The simple ground-sluicing operation consists in bringing water by gravitation or by pumping water up to suitable elevations and breaking the tin-bearing ground into either the natural channel of a stream or into suitable watercourses, in which the preliminary separation of the tin ore from the earth in which it is contained is brought about, either by hand-labour or by riffles—let into the water-courses—which have the effect of allowing the heavier metalliferous portions to settle for subsequent collection.

The more scientific hydraulic mining is done by the use of monitors, the water being brought from a distance in pipes under varying pressures up to heads of five and six hundred feet. The ground is broken down by jets of water played on the faces of the hills, the water, after having fulfilled its duty of breaking down the ground, acting as a conveyer of the tin-bearing material to suitable sluices where the separation of the tin ore is effected. This method of mining undoubtedly allows of ground being worked at a profit that could not be touched by either manual or mechanical means; in fact, the refuse from the dressing floors from the Cornish mines carries a higher value per ton than the virgin ground of a first-class hydraulic property in the Federated

Malay States. The tin ore that escapes from the Cornish dressing floors, however, is of the consistency of the finest flour, and is most difficult to catch; whilst that in the hydraulic properties is comparatively coarse and easily and simply retained. Suction dredgers were a recent introduction into the Malayan mining fields, and they have proved that certain ground of too poor a value for manual labour or any other mechanical means can be economically worked at a profit by this method, but they have not been an unqualified success. In the Kinta and Klang Valleys several of these plants have been tried. The first operation is to excavate in the property to be dredged a suitable paddock, in which is to be built the pontoon which carries the boilers, machinery and pumps. This is built on solid ground in the paddock, and the pontoon is of sufficient displacement to be itself floated from place to place as the land is worked out and fresh ground becomes inconveniently inaccessible. The main features of this method are as follow :—Ground is broken down with monitors by water under pressure, either by gravitation or from pumps, and this ground is sluiced into a sump or well at a somewhat lower elevation than that on which the pontoon is resting. Powerful suction sand pumps raise the water and debris to launders placed at suitable elevations, and in these launders the tin ore is separated by manual labour with or without the use of riffles. When the plant is at work the pontoon rests on the solid ground in the paddock. When it is desired to move the pontoon



KLEINGROHE, *Photographer*.

HYDRAULIC JET WASHING DOWN HILLSIDE FOR TIN ORE.

to a more suitable place to suit the circumstances, as ground in the vicinity of the pontoon gets worked out, a level place is prepared at the next proposed working place for the pontoon. The paddock is then flooded, and the pontoon is floated and takes up the newly-prepared station.

The more common method of bucket dredging is now in operation in many mines, and the results from this method have been far more satisfactory than those achieved by suction dredging. Several more plants of great capacity are now on order in England, and before long this method will be established as the most economical for treating low-grade propositions on the alluvial plains. Capitalisation, in the first instance, may be large owing to the high price necessarily paid for plant suitable for dealing with thousands of cubic yards per mensem; but this initial expenditure is offset by the low working cost of a few pence per cubic yard. A study of the costs in the cases of the Malayan, Kamunting and Kampong Kamunting Tin Dredging Companies bears testimony to the present low working costs, and these costs are likely, in the near future, to be reduced if fuel becomes cheaper, and experience and skill master local difficulties. Some years ago certain large worked-out areas were prospected by the Government under the supervision of the writer, to determine whether the alleged past wasteful methods of the Chinese miners had any substance except in theory. The prospection was carried out not with a view of proving that the former workers had neglected deeper strata of tin bearing

ground, but to prove whether, in the years previous to 1909, the Chinese miner had exhausted all the tin-ore that would come under the definition of "economical extraction" from the ground he had turned over. The results, in the writer's opinion, then seemed not to favour the theorist, but to prove the cleverness of the Chinaman with his primitive methods. What was proved, however, was that certain patches of virgin ground had been left on boundaries and where buildings had been, and it is doubtful whether these worked-out areas, with the sweetening up of these patches, the likelihood of high prices for tin and cheaper cost of extraction by bucket dredging, would not now prove attractive to the prospector.

**Dressing
Tin Ore.**

The tin-bearing ground may be, in some exceptional cases, so rich as to be black with grains of tin ore, thus carrying a high percentage of ore; and yet, on the other hand, in the ground-sluicing and hydraulic properties, land is payable when it carries only one-quarter to one-half pound of tin ore to the ton of ground. In the properties where the tin-bearing ground is stony and sandy and the tin ore can be easily separated, the separation is effected in either short or long coffin-shaped sluices set at a slight angle from the horizontal. The tin-bearing ground is raked into the box, and by the use of a long hoe for turning over the admixture of sand, stone and tin ore, and the careful manipulation of water with the foot, the Chinese tin washer effects the separation of the heavy tin ore from the sand and stone, the tin ore being retained at the top of the

box and the sand and stone being carried down the inclined box by the water. In many cases, however, the admixture of sand, stone and tin ore is placed in sluices which may be two or three hundred feet long, and in these the separation is effected by manual labour, with or without the use of raffles. When the tin-bearing ground is of the nature of a stiff clay, it has to go through a preliminary process of thorough disintegration by puddling, and thereafter the process of separating the tin ore is as above. The tin ore obtained from either of the processes above-mentioned is not, however, ready for the smelting furnace. The impurities generally mixed with the tin ore, which have a specific gravity approaching that of tin ore are wolfram, arsenical and sulphurous ores, tourmaline, titaniferous iron ore and magnetite. The partially dressed ore is treated in water on sieves of varying mesh, which classify the ore, and the ore dresser so manipulates these sieves by hand that he imparts to the sieve the action of a jig—by which the lighter portions are thrown to the top—and a centrifugal action by which he concentrates the lighter portions in the centre of the sieve on the top of the heavier tin ore. By this method the ore is washed up to great purity. Where arsenical and sulphurous ores are present, a further operation of calcining is necessary, and a further dressing is required to remove the resultant oxide of iron.

Where wolfram is present the ore has to be treated with a magnetic separator. Mechanical dressing plants are hardly ever used, and primitive though

the methods in vogue may seem, the resultant is an ore of great purity at a small cost, and the loss is brought down to a fine point.

**Sale and
Smelting of
Tin Ore.**

Throughout the Federated Malay States there are some five hundred licensed purchasers of tin ore, these purchasers of ore doing business either for the smelters in the Federated Malay States or in the Colony of the Straits Settlements. Twenty-five years ago it was the exception not to find the miner smelting his own ore. Now it is the exception to find the producer doing so. Over three-quarters of the ore obtained is now smelted in the Colony, where reverberatory furnaces are used. The Chinese smelter in the Federated Malay States uses a primitive blast furnace, and uses as fuel such charcoal as can be made from soft woods. The slags he obtains are treated perhaps nine times over, and the amount of tin ore left in these slags, which he is unable to extract economically, is small and represents very little of the gross amount of the ore he treats.

When the price of tin is on the upward move the Chinese smelter enters into keen competition with the Colonial smelter. When the price is declining and shows a further tendency in that direction, he is less keen on competing. The tin exported by the Chinese smelter has to go through a further purifying process in the Colony before it is exported for the tin-plate trade—this business requiring a tin of almost theoretical purity.

Labour. The labour in the mines is almost entirely Chinese. Actually employed in the mines are some 144,000 Asiatics, and of these about 8,500 are Indians, Javanese and Malays, the remainder being Chinese. In 1913 the total labour employed in the mines numbered 216,000, and the output of tin was 50,127 tons, whereas with a labour force of 144,600 in 1918, a decrease of 71,400, the output was 37,370 tons, or a decrease of only 12,757 tons, a small amount as compared with the big decrease in the labour force. This decrease in the labour force was offset by a great additional increase in the use of labour-saving appliances, the total for 1913 being 36,000 h.p. against 60,000 h.p. in 1918; this additional horse-power was partly due to the installation of new bucket dredges. These figures are quoted to show how largely mechanical power is taking the place of manual labour in Malaya; but had it not been for events that have happened subsequent to August 4, 1914, it is possible that the labour force in 1918 would have shown an increase as compared with 1913, as, with the price of tin in the vicinity of £200 a ton, Malaya is an attractive field for the Chinese immigrant. The employment of labourers in the mines is on two systems :—

(1) Where the owner of the land, or the capitalist working the land, employs labour at his own risk, and reaps all the profits; and

(2) Where the land is let to another party, or to the actual labourers themselves for a fixed tribute.

In the first case, labourers are engaged on contract at so much a cubic yard to do the main work of the mine, and also a small number are engaged on wages to do such work as could not be reasonably given out on contract, such as repairs, cutting watercourses, lifting the tin-bearing ground—if the bed is irregular, or lies unevenly—and dressing tin ore. The term of engagement is generally for six months, and the money earned by a labourer is not considered to be due to him till the termination of this period. During this period the labourer is under advances for food, cash, and all the necessities of life, to the owner of the mine. For these advances the labourer had to pay as a consideration 20 % interest on money advances, and 20 % over and above the market price for all food and the other necessities of life for any period up to six months. The labourer, moreover, was not supposed to buy anything from any shop other than that kept by the owner of the mine.

In the second case, where the owner of a piece of land is unwilling to work it himself, he sub-lets it either to another party or to the actual labourers themselves. These labourers have to find an advancer who, for certain considerations, is willing to take the risk of the mine turning out a profitable venture or not. The tin ore obtained is considered the advancer's property, and is bound to be delivered at the advancer's shop as security against the stores, provisions, &c., he has advanced.

Frequent sales are made when tin ore is obtained, and the accounts between labourer and advancer are

then settled and not kept in abeyance for six months as in the previous business arrangement mentioned.

The class of lands most favourable for the first-mentioned system are alluvial flats where the tin-bearing strata are fairly regular. The lands on which tribute labourers are generally employed are small patchy valleys, hill lands where ground-sluicing can be carried on, and in the mountain gullies. Working on tribute suits the individual labourer, as a spice of gambling enters into it, and it suits the owner of the land, as even if he is also the advancer he is able to limit his liabilities to a certain extent—should the venture be unsuccessful—by restricting the advances made to the actual necessities of the labourers.

It is the exception to find a Chinese labourer in the mines with a wife, and therefore the housing of the labourers, which is the duty of the owner of the land, or employer of the labourers, or the advancer, is a simple matter.

The living-houses are long, barnlike structures, divided into compartments, in each of which some twenty or thirty labourers are housed. The roof is thatched with palm leaves, the sides are made of badly-fitting split timbers, and the floor is hardened earth. His sleeping place is raised on poles some three feet from the ground, and is made of split bamboo. A cane pillow and a rug constitute the fittings of his bed. His worldly goods are kept in a small long box. His belongings, being small and not cumbrous, enable him to disappear silently when the mine he is working in is likely to be a failure and his

advances are much beyond what he is likely to reap as the reward of his labour. They have a common mess, the expenses of which are debited against each equally. They live in perfect harmony with each other, and fights are very rare except with neighbours, and then generally they only occur owing to encroachment on lands the property of others, or owing to the unlawful deviation of water so essential to mining operations. The hours of work are, as a general rule :—

Contract labourers	...	7 to 8 hours
Wages labourers	...	9 to 10 hours
Tribute labourers...	...	8 to 12 hours per diem.

In some mines there is a system of allowing the labourer to work on his own account for two hours per diem, and the tin ore he obtains he is allowed to sell to the owner of the mine for cash. Legislation makes it compulsory to post, in the chief living house, a board whereon is entered daily the number of days and half-days work done by each labourer. The engagement of labourers is a simple matter, and the labourer knows exactly the terms of his employment. In the principal living-house is posted a notice stating exactly what the terms are on which a labourer engages himself. It is his duty to acquaint himself with these terms, and once he has accepted an advance from the employer he is recognised as having accepted employment on the terms set out.

In former years coolies under agreement were brought direct from China. The terms of their

agreements were for one year, in which they were to work an agreed number of days in return for food, lodging, clothes, and a small monthly payment.

In pre-rubber days, with the exception of a few odd thousand Chinese employed on sugar and tapioca estates, there was no other employment for productive labour in Malaya. With the advent of the rubber plantations, the sugar and the tapioca estates disappeared ; but the number of Chinese employed on agriculture greatly increased. Thus, whereas before any increase in the mining population entailed recruiting from China, now the miner has another market open to him, and the future inter-supply of labour to the two industries—mining and planting—will be dependent largely on the price of the two commodities—tin and rubber—produced, and the respective inducements that can be offered by way of remuneration. To suggest any such idea as the inter-changing of labour from mining to planting, or *vice versa*, might appear to be courting disorganisation of labour ; but in the case of a Chinaman, not only does he often already know both trades, but he adapts himself in an incredibly short time to a new industry and new surroundings. As a domestic instance of this, in a great many houses in Malaya, if the duties of the personnel of the establishment, “boy,” cook and watercarrier, were changed round with the same staff, it is highly probable that the master would be better waited on, the food better cooked, and the house kept cleaner than was previously the case.

Besides those actually employed in the mines, there are many thousands employed indirectly in connection with mining operations. The total number dependent on the mining industry is not far short of 200,000.

**Legislation
Affecting Miners.** Mining operations, from the preliminary acquirement of the land to the disposal of the ore and the smelting of it, are controlled by the Mining Enactment, certain sections of the Land Enactment, the Labour Enactment, the Mineral Ores Enactment, and the Machinery and Electricity Enactments, and the rules made under these Enactments. The Mining Enactment and the rules thereunder are thoroughly comprehensive, and deal with the procedure for the acquirement of mining lands, the transfer, sub-letting and charging of such lands, the fees payable in respect of mining lands and dealings in the same, and the conditions on which land is leased and the regulations for controlling mining operations. Briefly, any person desirous of acquiring mining lands can do so at the Land Office of the district in which the land is situated, by paying the prescribed fees for survey and sending in a plan and description of the land applied for. The premium charged is at the discretion of the British Resident of the State, and varies from 2s. 4d. up to £2 18s. 4d. per acre, the latter amount being charged only in exceptional cases, such as in districts where applications for mining lands have not been accepted for a considerable period. The leases are for 21 years as a general rule, and may be renewed for

further periods, if the terms of the lease have been complied with, and the rent is 2s. 4d. an acre per annum. The rights of a lessee under the Enactment are "to work all metals and minerals found upon or beneath the land," but this does not include mineral oils and shales, and the general obligations on a lessee are that he will work such land in a skilful and workmanlike manner, not cause danger and damage to the occupiers of other lands, keep employed one man to the acre, or the equivalent in labour-saving appliances, and observe the rules and regulations in force for the safety of the labourers employed on the land. Prospecting licences are also issued and on each licence is endorsed the area that may be selected, for which a lease may be granted if sufficient prospecting has been done. The Land Enactment deals only with such general points as affect all lands. The Labour Enactment defines the conditions under which labourers may be employed. The Machinery and Electricity Enactments are for regulating the use of machinery in mines, for defining the necessary qualifications of those placed in charge of the same, and provide for the obtaining of certificates of competency for those desirous of being in charge of such plant. The Mineral Ores Enactment legislates for the control of all dealings in tin ore, and for the smelting of the same in the Federated Malay States. No person may, unless he is the actual producer, smelt any tin ore without a licence, and no person may purchase or keep any place for purchasing any tin ore without first

obtaining a licence. The fee for each licence is £11 13s. 4d. per annum.

**Conveyancing
of Land.**

Nothing possibly could be simpler than the transferring, sub-letting or charging of land. All that is necessary is for the parties to any deal to fill up and sign the prescribed form for any particular transaction, and then to transmit such form, when the signatures have been witnessed, with the document of title, to the Land Office of the District in which the land is situated. The Land Office then registers the transaction, and before the document of title is returned, the transaction is endorsed thereon. The fees charged are small, generally no legal assistance is required, and the holder of a lease, a sub-lease or a charge has the guarantee of the Government as to its validity. For a small fee, search may be made of the Registers in any Land Office. It is an ideal system, entailing the minimum amount of trouble on those desirous of entering into any transaction, and gives the maximum amount of security to all parties.

From the earliest days of British influence in Malaya, the Government took the precaution to vest in itself the entire property in and control of all rivers, streams and water-courses. All the States are well watered, and it is only in times of excessive and exceptional drought that there is not ample water for ordinary mining purposes. The suitable allocation of the necessary amount of water for each lessee or party of lessees of mining lands is in the hands of the

officers of the Mines Department. In some cases a licence is given under the hand of the Resident, which amply safeguards the interests of the licensee. Evenly distributed throughout the year, the rainfall varies from 68 to 167 inches in the different parts of the States, the average being about 90 inches.

For mining purposes the Government make no charge for water, whether for ore dressing or for power.

Supervision of Mining Operations. The supervision of mining operations is vested in each State in the Officer in charge of the Mines Department, who is designated a Warden, or Assistant-Warden. In supreme charge there is also a Senior Warden, who is responsible to the Chief Secretary and the Residents of each State for the proper administration of mining affairs, and for the general supervision of all mining operations. In addition, there is a staff of Inspectors of Mines, of Machinery and Electrical Plant and of Mineral Ore Shops, whose duties are defined in the respective enactments. No officer of the Mines Department has any executive work in connection with the alienation of mining lands, his work being mainly the supervising and controlling of mining operations, the guarding of State and private property, and the settlement of disputes between the owners of mining lands. In each State a Warden's Court is constituted and all prosecutions under the Mining Enactment, and all mining civil cases where the amount claimed is not more than five hundred dollars, are decided in

this Court, subject to appeal to the Judicial Commissioner's Court.

The chief difficulty with regard to the supervision of mines is the control of tailings, but every reasonable facility is given to lessees, subject to the prohibition that certain rivers are not to be fouled under any conditions—such prohibitions being made in the interests of the community at large. The disputes between the owners of mining lands are mainly concerning the use of water, encroachments over boundaries and the depositing of tailings. These are, as far as possible, settled within twenty-four hours of a complaint being lodged, and it is the exception to find the decision given in such cases not observed by all parties.

The total area of lands leased for mining purposes is, roughly, 240,000 acres, and of this more than one-half is situated in Perak. The chief mining district in Perak is the Kinta Valley, and here some of the richest deposits have been found. The nature of the alluvial deposits is very varied, tin ore occurring on the surface and down to depths of 200 and 300 feet. Other stanniferous districts are those of Batang-Padang, Kuala Kangsar and Taiping, the last-named being one of the oldest tin fields worked in the Federated Malay States. Raman—the Protectorate of which was recently ceded by the Siamese Government—awaits the construction of roads and better facilities of transport before it can be developed properly. Selangor, in which some 65,000 acres are leased for mining, is the second

State in mining importance. The Klang Valley is in many respects similar to the Kinta Valley, but the richness and extent of the tin ore deposits are inferior to Kinta. Sungei Besi has produced some enormously rich patches and deep "leads," and in this district are to be seen large open-cast mines working at a profit the lands which had previously been shafted and worked underground. The tin fields of Rawang and Serendah in this State resemble that of Taiping, the tin-bearing ground occurring as a regular and uniform bed at a depth of between 20 to 30 feet.

In Negri Sembilan some 20,000 acres are leased for mining, the chief centre being Seremban—the capital of the State. Pahang, where some 23,000 acres are leased for mining, in addition to unsurveyed concessions, has come more into prominence as a mining State for both alluvial and lode mining.

**Worked-out
Lands.**

Throughout the Federated Malay States may be seen the deserted remains of what were once prosperous and populated tin fields. These fields are said to be worked out, but this statement is based on somewhat uncertain data. The Chinese miner decided in his own mind in early days when he had reached what would be the equivalent of bed-rock, below which there was no use his looking for further deposits of tin-ore. When the bed-rock was rock, then there would be no question of doubting the wisdom of his decision; but in the majority of cases the bed-rock was a stratum of clay, and on the appearance and composition of this clay, unaided, usually, by putting

down a few bores, he condemned the further fruitfulness of this land. The past has proved him to have been wrong in his diagnosis, and the future is more than likely to confirm an opinion that no field is really bottomed until hard rock or rock decomposed *in situ* is reached.

**Wolfram and
Scheelite.**

In many parts of the Federated Malay States, wolfram and scheelite are found, not separately, but intermixed with tin-ore. Twenty years ago, the occurrence of wolfram with tin-ore was considered a misfortune, as there was then little or no market for this mineral, and magnetic separators had not been introduced. In later years, with magnetic separators, and a firm market—almost entirely in foreign hands—wolfram has commanded at times a higher price than tin-ore. It is found only in certain localities, and generally in hill workings. The chief centres where it has been found are in Perak, at Chemok, Bruseh and Kleydang ; in Selangor, at Ulu Klang, Ampang and Ulu Langat ; and in Negri Sembilan, at Paroi and Titi. Except to the trained mineralogist, it resembles tin-ore in appearance and in weight, and as such, before the days of assays, it was often passed off on a too confiding purchaser.

It may not be out of place to give a simple test to enable a prospector to differentiate with certainty between these two minerals, and, moreover, it is a test that is not generally known and is given in no text books. Take the mineral to be tested and a few small pieces of granulated zinc. Add a little hydrochloric acid and gently heat the mixture, when, if the

mineral is tin-ore, each grain of tin will become coated with metallic tin, whereas wolfram shows no reaction. It is a pretty experiment, one almost with the touch of the alchemist, and to those who are sceptical of its efficacy, the writer suggests a trial.

Stimulated by higher prices, the output of tungsten ores has increased in recent years, the figures of exports being—1913, 225 tons; 1914, 261 tons; 1915, 292 tons; 1916, 518 tons; 1917, 761 tons; and in 1918, 370 tons.

The fact that tungsten ores do not occur alone, but are only found as an admixture with tin-ore, is largely responsible for the reason of there being no great increase, as the Government have offered liberal terms to miners and exporters, with a view of increasing the output. In Trengganu, across the border of Pahang, on the other hand, at the Dungun River, wolfram is found alone, and as such is worked with some financial success.

In Pahang only is there a gold mine of

Gold Mining. any importance, namely, the Raub Mine.

Here a low-grade proposition of a fraction over two and a half pennyweights to the ton is being worked at a small profit, the recovery being 16,990 ounces from 132,723 tons in 1918, as compared with 13,159 ounces from 99,473 tons in 1914. The Raub Company's hydro-electric power installation and the large amount of surface stone which is crushed are factors which combine together to make such low-grade ore payable. In Perak and Negri Sembilan, alluvial gold was obtained to the extent of 1,337

ounces in 1917, as compared with 1,302 ounces in 1918 from Perak, Negri Sembilan and Pahang. The total quantity of gold placed on the market from the States in 1918 was 18,309 ounces, compared with 18,154 ounces in 1917, and 17,386 ounces in 1916.

In Selangor, some 25 miles from Kuala Lumpur, the capital of the State, coal was found, to prospect which a company was incorporated in 1911. The results of prospection were satisfactory, and, some 10,000,000 tons of coal having been proved a local company was started in 1913 with a working capital of £58,000. The Government of the Federated Malay States has constructed a branch line to the colliery, which will connect with the main trunk line, the station at the colliery being called Batu Arang.

A mean analysis of the coal gave the following results :—

Moisture	14.50	per cent.
Ash	4.45	„ „
Fixed Carbon	42.85	„ „
Volatile Hydrocarbons	38.20	„ „

The coal is described as follows :—“ It has a pitch-black colour and breaks with a conchoidal fracture ; being fairly hard it does not soil the fingers. It has a specific gravity of from 1.2 to 1.3. It is non-coking, and burns with a long flame. The ash is white, pulverulent, and does not clinker.”

The output of coal from the Malayan Collieries Limited, in 1915, was 11,523 tons ; in 1916, 101,846 tons ; in 1917, 155,279 tons ; and in 1918, 168,740

tons. This quantity could have been increased had it been possible to obtain plant on order. A royalty of 25 cents. (7d.) a ton is charged by the Government, but there is no export duty on the coal. Rawang coal has, it seems, peculiar characteristics, inasmuch that no two users seem to get the same results. It is, however, likely that the coal in question is quite devoid of peculiarities, and that inexperience has innocently libelled the coal. The fact remains that this coal has had an uphill fight to obtain a market, and that it has done so is largely due to the influence of the experienced few who took this coal and proved to their entire satisfaction its utility and economy as compared with other available fuels.

Recent events in Europe have proved how absolutely necessary is the possession within its own frontiers of coal and iron ore for the dominance and protection of a country and its people; past peaceful days have taught us how necessary they were for the establishment of industries. It may, therefore, safely be said that the successful exploitation of this coal has increased the economic assets of the Federated Malay States very considerably.

Experiments with the coal, in the nature of the low temperature distillation of the volatile constituents, have been carried out during the last eighteen months, under the supervision of one of the most learned professors on fuels, and with satisfactory results. A binder has now been found of a nature that will satisfactorily briquette the coal under certain favourable conditions.

A low-grade iron-ore is found on the coast, and some day Malaya may be producing pig-iron.

A duty is leviable on all tin and tin

Export Duties. ore exported from the Federated Malay States, and is calculated on a sliding scale which varies with the rise and fall in the price of the metal. With tin at £150 on the London market, the duty works out at about 13 per cent. of the value exported. The amount of duty collected in the Federated Malay States in 1913 was \$10,671,378, or, roughly, £1,244,994, and in 1918, \$13,142,054, or £1,533,239.

The duty on gold is $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. *ad valorem* at present, having been reduced for the last three years from 5 per cent.

The duty on wolfram is at present suspended, and on all other metals and minerals is at the rate of 10 per cent. *ad valorem*.

It is often contended that the export duty on tin is high, but, even if it is high, it is justified by the fact that it is the only form of taxation to which mining is subjected. The rent of \$1 (2s. 4d.) on mining land is low. All mining machinery and stores come into the country duty free. Water, whether it be for a few fossickers or for an extensive hydro-electric plant, is given free of all fees or charges. The rate of duty is tempered by a sliding scale which meets the upward and downward movements in the market price of tin. Lately, also, to meet existing circumstances and to give every encouragement to lode mining and the mining of deposits of a poorer quality, the Government has decided to relax somewhat the general rate of duty in

special cases. Timber for firewood and for mining purposes is given free to miners, and to miners only—a concession the value of which it is difficult to estimate. The revenue derived from the duty on tin has been and is being employed in the development of the country, directly cheapening transport and commodities and thus indirectly lessening the costs of winning tin. If a comparison were made with the taxes, direct and indirect, on the mining industries of other countries, the Federated Malay States would compare favourably.

The history of the tin industry may be summed up in the few words that the past cumbersome method of transport of tin ore and of provisions for the workers by elephant and by river boat is now replaced by first-class roads and express trains. Time is saved in bringing the ore to the market, and the liability to theft is avoided. In the old days, it was no uncommon excuse to attribute the shortage of weight during transit to the elephant's inordinate and unnatural appetite for the indigestible. The future of the tin-mining industry depends on further improved means of transport and the opening up of unworked areas that may be proved payable to mine.

APPENDICES.

GLOSSARY.

Astana	...	Palace.	Merah	...	Red.
Atap	...	That ch of palmleaf.	Nibong	...	A palm (<i>oncos-perma tigilaria</i>).
Ayer...	...	Water.	Nipah	...	Palmleaf
Baju...	...	Short jacket.	Nonia	...	A Chinese or Eurasian married woman.
Bangsawan	...	Theatrical performance	Orang	...	Man.
Blanda	...	Dutchman (Hollander)	Padi	...	Rice.
Blong	...	Axe.	Pahlawan	...	Leader in war.
Bukit	...	Hill.	Parang	...	Chopping knife.
Gajah	...	Elephant.	Pawang	...	Magician.
Itam	...	Black.	Penghulu	...	Headman.
Jadam	...	Niello work.	Penglima	...	Leader in war.
Jarang	...	Separated by wide intervals.	Pinang	...	Betel nut.
Kampung	...	A hamlet; a homestead; a home.	Pinding	...	Buckle.
Kongsi	...	Chinese shed.	Prahu	...	Boat.
Kota	...	Fort.	Punai	...	Green pigeon.
Kris...	...	Dagger.	Puteh	...	White.
Krusang	...	Brooch.	Sungei	...	River.
Kuda	..	Horse.	Tengkis	...	Unequal in size.
Kuning	...	Yellow.	Tuan	...	Master, sir.
Lada	...	Pepper	Tumbok	...	To pound.
Lalang	...	Long grass (<i>impe-rata cylindrica</i>).	Umbut	...	The soft heart of the upper portion of a palm, palm-cabbage.
Lumpur	...	Mud.	Ungka	...	Gibbon (<i>hylobates lar</i> or <i>hylobates agilis</i>) mor-key.
Mabok	...	Drunken.			
Mati	...	Dead.			
Mengkuang	...	The common screw-pine (<i>paudanus atrocarpus</i>).			

NOTE.—Vowels are pronounced as in Italian, consonants as in English.

THE FEDERATED MALAY STATES.

APPROXIMATE STATISTICS.

<i>Area</i> - - - -	27,623 square miles.
<i>Population</i> - - - -	1,279,859 (estimated).
<i>Imports, 1918</i> - - - -	£8,720,920
<i>Exports, 1918</i> - - - -	£26,024,400
<i>Trade, 1918</i> - - - -	£34,745,320
<i>Government Revenue, 1918</i> -	£7,985,700.

EXPORT (1918) OF SOME STAPLE ARTICLES.

	Tons.	Value.
		£
Areca nuts	794	10,813
Coffee	169	7,861
Copra	25,490	356,221
Fish, Dried and Salted	2,708	39,308
Gambier	266	10,437
Guttas and Unspecified Rubber	6	2,136
Hides, Raw	398	21,160
Indigo	218	1,230
Padi	5,250	28,038
Para Rubber	78,389	13,584,665
Pepper	10	417
Rattans and Canes	230	1,864
Rice	5,292	75,432
Sugar and Sugar Cane... ..	19	477
Tapioca	1,380	18,192
Tin and Tin Ore	50,982	11,032,235
Tungsten and Scheelite	821	133,308

RESTHOUSES UPKEPT BY GOVERNMENT.

The charge for lodgings is \$1.50 cts. = 3s. 6d. a day, and for board is \$1.50 cts. = 3s. 6d. a day, unless otherwise stated.

NAME OF TOWN.	NAME OF STATE.
Bagan Datoh	Perak
Bagan Serai	Perak
Batu Gajah †	Perak
Bentong †	Pahang
Bidor	Perak
Bruas	Perak
Chanderiang	Perak
Gopeng †	Perak
Grik †	Perak
Ipoh	Perak
Jugra	Selangor
Kajang	Selangor
Kampar †	Perak
Kampung Batu (Rembau)*	Negri Sembilan
Klian Intan †	Perak
Kroh †	Perak
Kuala Dipang	Perak
Kuala Kangsar	Perak
Kuala Klawang †	Negri Sembilan
Kuala Kurau	Perak
Kuala Lipis †	Pahang
Kuala Lumpur	Selangor
Kuala Pahang ‡	Pahang
Kuala Pilah *	Negri Sembilan

* Board \$2=4s. 8d. a day. † Board \$2.50 cts.=5s. 10d. a day. ‡ Lodging \$1=2s. 4d. a day. || Food supplied by caretakers, with whom travellers should make their own arrangements.

RESTHOUSES UPKEPT BY GOVERNMENT—*cont.*

NAME OF TOWN.	NAME OF STATE.
Kuala Selangor	Selangor
Kuantan †	Pahang
Lawin †	Perak
Lenggong †	Perak
Parit †	Perak
Parit Buntar	Perak
Pekan	Pahang
Port Dickson *	Negri Sembilan
Raub *	Pahang
Selama †	Perak
Sepang	Negri Sembilan
Seremban *	Negri Sembilan
Sitiawan	Perak
Sungei Siput	Perak
Sungkai	Perak
Sunkai	Perak
Taiping †	Perak
Tampin *	Negri Sembilan
Tanjong Malim	Perak
Tanjong Tualang	Perak
Tapah	Perak
Telok Anson	Perak
Ulu Selangor	Selangor

* Board \$2 = 4s. 3d. a day. † Board \$2.50 cts. 5s. 10d. a day. || Food supplied by caretakers, with whom travellers should make their own arrangements.

FEES FOR SPORTING LICENCES.

Licence.	Fee.	Duration.	Obtainable from
Import or Possess arms and ammunition.	Free	One month	Chief Police Officer, Penang or Singapore.
Gun	50 cts. = 1s. 2d. ...	Expires December 31st	Chief Police Officer, Penang or Singapore.
Game	\$5 = 11s. 8d. ...	Expires December 31st	Chief Police Officer any district headquarters.
Big Game (residents) ...	\$50 = £5 16s. 8d. every five head.	Six months	Resident.
Big Game (non-residents) ...	\$100 = £11 13s. 4d. every head.	Six months	Resident.
Wild Birds	\$50 = £5 16s. 8d. ...	Three months	Resident.

GROWTH OF TRADE AND GOVERNMENT REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE IN 43 YEARS.

Year.	Revenue.		Expenditure.		Import.		Export.		Total Import and Export.		Per Head of Population.
	£	₹	£	₹	£	₹	£	₹	Value.	£	₹
1875	49,391	77,611	436,872	82,824	831,375	157,615	739,972	110,286	1,571,347	237,001	—
1880	881,610	163,277	794,911	140,880	2,231,018	420,646	1,906,952	359,540	4,138,000	780,185	—
1885	2,298,709	384,223	2,261,951	333,486	8,667,425	1,577,771	9,691,786	1,685,467	18,359,211	3,193,738	—
1890*	4,819,665	836,928	5,237,275	995,612	15,143,809	2,670,192	17,002,093	3,043,695	33,045,902	5,714,187	77. = 13
1895	8,181,007	901,107	7,582,553	805,616	22,653,271	2,406,910	31,622,805	3,359,923	54,276,676	5,766,833	102. = 10
1900	15,609,807	1,593,501	12,728,930	1,299,412	38,402,581	3,920,263	60,361,045	6,161,857	98,763,626	10,082,120	145. = 14
1905	23,964,533	2,471,349	20,750,395	2,139,884	50,575,155	5,215,594	80,057,654	8,255,946	130,633,169	13,471,539	151. = 15
1910	25,553,018	3,097,832	23,598,610	2,753,171	53,255,151	6,213,101	102,851,990	11,999,398	156,167,141	18,212,499	160.7 = 17.6
1915	40,774,984	4,757,081	42,838,631	4,997,840	61,343,945	7,156,792	162,429,254	18,950,080	223,773,189	26,106,872	—
1916	51,121,856	5,964,213	31,966,581	3,729,434	71,472,918	8,338,510	220,548,118	25,730,614	292,021,066	34,063,124	—
1917	65,553,186	7,647,872	40,878,746	4,769,187	74,707,582	8,726,384	272,064,100	31,749,812	346,861,682	40,467,196	—
1918	62,418,862	7,985,700	45,286,910	5,283,472	74,750,746	8,720,920	223,066,282	26,024,400	297,817,028	34,745,320	232. = 27.1

* 1890 and 1885 includes Perak, Selangor and Negri Sembilan only. From 1890 Pahang is included. From 1906 the exchange value of the dollar has been fixed at 2s. 4d.

BIBLIOGRAPHIA.

Name of Book.	Author.	Publisher.
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Malay Sketches ...	Sir F. Swettenham	"
Unaddressed Letters...	"	"
The Real Malay ...	"	"
In Malay Forests ...	W. G. Maxwell ...	Blackwood & Sons.
Saleh	Sir Hugh Clifford...	" "
Bush-whacking ...	" ...	" "
In a Corner of Asia ...	" ...	" "
In Court and Kampong	" ...	" "
Heroes of Exile ...	" ...	" "
Malayan Monochromes	" ...	John Murray.
John Smith in Malaya	A. Hale ...	Brill, Leyden.
Malayan Memories ...	R. O. Winstedt ...	Kelly & Walsh.
Chinese Shadows ...	W. G. Stirling ...	" "
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Further India ...	Sir Hugh Clifford...	Lawrence & Bullen.
The Malay Peninsula	A. Wright and T. H. Reid.	T. Fisher Unwin.
The Far East ...	Henry Norman ...	" "
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Malayan India ...	John Cameron ...	Smith, Elder & Co.
Far East Revisited ...	A. G. Angier ...	Witherby.
Kelantan ...	W. A. Graham ...	MacLehose.
Quedah ...	Sherard Osborn ...	Longmans.
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Reptilia and Batrachia	G. A. Boulenger ...	" " "

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Eng.-Malay Vocabulary	„	
Manual of the Malay Language	W. E. Maxwell ...	Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.
An Abridged Malay-English Dictionary.	R. J. Wilkinson ...	F. M. S. Govt. Press.
Malay-English Dictionary. 2 Vols.	„ ...	Kelly & Walsh.
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Practical Malay Grammar.	„	„ „ „
Travellers' Malay Pronouncing Handbook	—	Kelly & Walsh.
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NOTE. Most of these books are procurable from Kelly & Walsh or John Little & Co., Singapore, and from Prit hard & Co., Penang.

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Ordinances—Unbound copies of Rules and Regulations, Orders in Council, 5 cents for every 4 pages or part of 4 pages.	—
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" " " (Full Cloth)	6 00
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" " " 1907, Index to	1 45
" " " 1907, Table of Contents of	0 20
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" " " Index to	0 75
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Treaties and Engagements with the Native States of the Malay Peninsula (1889)	1	00

PENINSULAR TRUNK ROAD, PENANG TO MALACCA.

Penang.

33 Parit Buntar.

29 3 Simpang Lima.

34 9 6 Bagan Serai.

33 25 19 Kamunting.

55 31 28 22 3 Taiping.

71 46 43 37 13 15 Padang Rengas.

70 54 51 45 26 23 8 Kuala Kangsar.

83 58 55 43 20 27 12 4 Enggor Pontoon Bridge.

87 62 59 53 34 31 16 8 4 Salak North.

93 68 65 59 40 37 22 14 10 6 Sungai Siput.

101 76 73 67 48 45 30 22 18 8 Chemor.

111 86 83 77 58 55 40 32 25 24 18 10 Ipoh.

118 93 90 84 65 62 47 39 35 31 27 17 7 Sungai Kala (Kampung Kepayang)

123 98 95 89 70 67 52 41 40 36 30 22 12 5 Gopeng.

135 110 107 101 82 79 64 56 52 48 42 34 24 17 12 Kampar.

142 117 114 108 89 86 71 63 55 49 41 31 24 19 7 Temoh.

149 124 121 115 96 93 78 70 66 62 56 48 38 31 26 14 7 Tapah.

157 132 129 123 104 101 86 75 74 70 64 56 46 39 34 22 15 8 Bidor.

166 141 138 132 113 110 95 87 83 79 73 65 55 48 43 31 24 17 9 Sungkal

191 166 163 157 138 135 129 112 108 104 98 90 80 73 68 51 49 43 31 25 Slim.

205 180 177 171 152 149 134 126 122 118 112 104 94 87 82 70 63 56 43 33 11 Tanjung Malin.

209 184 181 175 156 153 138 130 126 122 116 108 98 91 85 74 67 60 52 43 18 4 Kuala Kubu.

221 196 193 187 168 165 150 142 138 134 128 120 110 103 98 89 82 79 72 64 55 36 16 12 Serendah

235 210 207 201 182 179 165 156 152 148 142 134 124 117 112 100 93 86 78 69 44 30 26 14 6 Rawang

241 216 213 207 188 185 170 162 158 154 148 140 130 123 118 106 99 92 84 75 50 36 32 20 6 Bandar Blaru

254 220 226 220 201 195 183 175 171 167 161 153 143 136 131 119 112 105 97 88 63 49 45 33 19 13 Batu

259 231 231 225 203 199 189 180 176 172 166 158 148 141 136 124 117 110 102 93 68 54 50 38 21 18 5 Kuala Lumpur.

270 245 242 236 217 214 199 191 187 181 175 169 159 152 147 135 128 121 113 104 79 65 61 49 35 20 16 11 Cheras.

274 249 246 240 221 218 203 195 191 187 181 173 163 156 151 139 132 125 117 108 83 69 67 53 39 33 20 15 4 Kajang

280 255 252 246 227 223 209 204 197 193 187 179 169 162 157 145 138 131 123 114 89 75 71 59 45 39 26 21 10 6 Semenyih

287 262 259 253 234 231 216 208 204 200 194 186 176 169 164 152 145 138 130 121 96 82 78 66 62 46 33 23 17 13 7 Beranang.

294 269 266 260 241 238 223 215 211 207 201 193 183 176 171 159 152 145 137 128 103 89 85 73 59 53 40 35 24 7 Setul.

302 277 274 268 246 233 223 210 211 201 201 197 184 179 167 160 153 145 136 111 97 83 81 67 61 48 43 32 28 22 15 8 Seremban. (Rembau)

322 297 294 288 269 256 251 243 239 235 231 214 199 187 180 173 165 156 131 117 113 101 87 81 68 63 52 48 42 35 24 20 Kampong Batu.

334 309 306 300 281 278 263 255 251 247 241 234 223 216 211 190 192 185 177 168 143 129 125 113 99 93 89 75 64 60 54 47 40 32 12 Taplin.

348 353 339 324 305 302 297 279 275 271 265 257 247 240 235 223 216 200 201 192 167 153 149 137 123 117 104 99 88 94 73 71 64 56 36 24 Malacca.

TRUNK AND BRANCH ROADS—PENANG TO KUALA KANGSAR, AND GRIK.

PENANG.

PAKAT BUSTAK.

25 9 Tanjung Pandang.

25 10 6 Kuala Kurau.

29 14 13 Sungai Gedong.

28 3 8 7 11 SEMPANG LAYA.

34 9 14 8 5 6 RAGAN SERAL.

35 31 36 30 27 28 Solom.

33 31 36 30 17 28 Pondok Tanjung.

34 33 38 32 19 30 9 Batu Kurau.

38 33 38 32 19 30 12 KAMUNTING.

38 33 38 32 19 30 13 3 TAIPING.

38 33 38 32 19 30 22 10 7 Matang.

38 33 38 32 19 30 22 11 4 Port Weld.

38 33 38 32 19 30 22 11 4 30 Dindings Boundary (Batu Hampar).

38 33 38 32 19 30 22 11 4 30 7 Bruas (Chenderong Klubi).

38 33 38 32 19 30 22 11 4 30 17 Parit.

38 33 38 32 19 30 22 11 4 30 37 51 PADANG RENGAS.

38 33 38 32 19 30 22 11 4 30 45 62 8 KUALA KANGSAR.

38 33 38 32 19 30 22 11 4 30 49 66 12 11 Kati.

38 33 38 32 19 30 22 11 4 30 49 66 12 11 21 Lenggong.

38 33 38 32 19 30 22 11 4 30 49 66 12 11 21 23 Lawin.

38 33 38 32 19 30 22 11 4 30 49 66 12 11 21 23 40 17 Grik.

38 33 38 32 19 30 22 11 4 30 49 66 12 11 21 23 40 17 Grik.

TRUNK AND BRANCH ROADS, KUALA KANGSAR TO TANJONG MALIM.

KUALA KANGSAR.													LINGGOR PONTOON BRIDGE.													4 SALAK NORTH.																																																																		
14	10	6	SUNGEI SIFUT.										14	10	6	SUNGEI SIFUT.										14	10	6	SUNGEI SIFUT.																																																															
22	18	14	8	CHEMOR.										22	18	14	8	CHEMOR.										22	18	14	8	CHEMOR.																																																												
24	20	16	6	Tanjong Rambutan.										24	20	16	6	Tanjong Rambutan.										24	20	16	6	Tanjong Rambutan.																																																												
34	30	26	20	12	6	Tambun.									34	30	26	20	12	6	Tambun.									34	30	26	20	12	6	Tambun.																																																								
32	28	24	18	10	10	4	IPOH.							32	28	24	18	10	10	4	IPOH.							32	28	24	18	10	10	4	IPOH.																																																									
36	32	28	22	17	11	7	SUNGEI BAJA (Kampung Kepayang).										36	32	28	22	17	11	7	SUNGEI BAJA (Kampung Kepayang).										36	32	28	22	17	11	7	SUNGEI BAJA (Kampung Kepayang).																																																			
38	34	30	24	13	13	7	3	10	Menglembu via Batu Gajah.							38	34	30	24	13	13	7	3	10	Menglembu via Batu Gajah.							38	34	30	24	13	13	7	3	10	Menglembu via Batu Gajah.																																																			
37	33	29	23	15	15	9	5	12	2	Labat.							37	33	29	23	15	15	9	5	12	2	Labat.							37	33	29	23	15	15	9	5	12	2	Labat.																																																
41	37	33	27	19	19	13	9	14	6	4	Papan.							41	37	33	27	19	19	13	9	14	6	4	Papan.							41	37	33	27	19	19	13	9	14	6	4	Papan.																																													
43	41	40	34	26	26	20	16	18	14	12	8	Trotoh.							43	41	40	34	26	26	20	16	18	14	12	8	Trotoh.							43	41	40	34	26	26	20	16	18	14	12	8	Trotoh.																																										
42	38	34	28	20	20	14	10	12	7	5	2	6	Pusing.							42	38	34	28	20	20	14	10	12	7	5	2	6	Pusing.							42	38	34	28	20	20	14	10	12	7	5	2	6	Pusing.																																							
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45	41	37	31	23	23	17	13	9	10	8	5	9	3	6	Batu Gajah.							45	41	37	31	23	23	17	13	9	10	8	5	9	3	6	Batu Gajah.							45	41	37	31	23	23	17	13	9	10	8	5	9	3	6	Batu Gajah.																																	
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51	47	43	37	29	29	23	19	12	28	26	23	27	21	24	18	7	16	Kuala Dipang.							51	47	43	37	29	29	23	19	12	28	26	23	27	21	24	18	7	16	Kuala Dipang.							51	47	43	37	29	29	23	19	12	28	26	23	27	21	24	18	7	16	Kuala Dipang.																								
56	52	48	42	34	34	28	24	17	33	31	28	32	26	29	23	12	21	5	KAMPAR.							56	52	48	42	34	34	28	24	17	33	31	28	32	26	29	23	12	21	5	KAMPAR.							56	52	48	42	34	34	28	24	17	33	31	28	32	26	29	23	12	21	5	KAMPAR.																					
62	59	55	49	41	41	35	31	24	40	38	35	39	33	36	30	19	28	12	7	TEMOH.							62	59	55	49	41	41	35	31	24	40	38	35	39	33	36	30	19	28	12	7	TEMOH.							62	59	55	49	41	41	35	31	24	40	38	35	39	33	36	30	19	28	12	7	TEMOH.																		
68	64	60	54	46	46	40	36	29	45	43	40	44	38	41	35	24	33	17	12	5	Chenderiang.							68	64	60	54	46	46	40	36	29	45	43	40	44	38	41	35	24	33	17	12	5	Chenderiang.							68	64	60	54	46	46	40	36	29	45	43	40	44	38	41	35	24	33	17	12	5	Chenderiang.															
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77	73	69	63	55	55	49	45	38	51	52	49	53	47	50	44	33	42	26	21	14	15	7	BIDOR.							77	73	69	63	55	55	49	45	38	51	52	49	53	47	50	44	33	42	26	21	14	15	7	BIDOR.							77	73	69	63	55	55	49	45	38	51	52	49	53	47	50	44	33	42	26	21	14	15	7	BIDOR.									
102	93	91	88	80	80	74	70	63	79	77	74	78	72	75	69	58	67	51	43	39	40	32	25	Teluk Anson.							102	93	91	88	80	80	74	70	63	79	77	74	78	72	75	69	58	67	51	43	39	40	32	25	Teluk Anson.							102	93	91	88	80	80	74	70	63	79	77	74	78	72	75	69	58	67	51	43	39	40	32	25	Teluk Anson.						
130	123	122	116	108	108	102	98	91	107	105	102	106	103	97	86	95	79	67	68	64	53	28	12	10	35	63	SUNGKAI	130	123	122	116	108	108	102	98	91	107	105	102	106	103	97	86	95	79	67	68	64	53	28	12	10	35	63	SUNGKAI	130	123	122	116	108	108	102	98	91	107	105	102	106	103	97	86	95	79	67	68	64	53	28	12	10	35	63	SUNGKAI									
87	83	79	73	65	65	59	55	49	64	62	59	63	57	60	54	43	52	36	31	21	25	17	10	35	63	SUNGKAI	87	83	79	73	65	65	59	55	49	64	62	59	63	57	60	54	43	52	36	31	21	25	17	10	35	63	SUNGKAI	87	83	79	73	65	65	59	55	49	64	62	59	63	57	60	54	43	52	36	31	21	25	17	10	35	63	SUNGKAI												
111	107	103	97	89	89	83	79	72	88	86	83	87	81	84	78	67	76	60	55	48	40	41	34	59	87	24	SLIM.	111	107	103	97	89	89	83	79	72	88	86	83	87	81	84	78	67	76	60	55	48	40	41	34	59	87	24	SLIM.	111	107	103	97	89	89	83	79	72	88	86	83	87	81	84	78	67	76	60	55	48	40	41	34	59	87	24	SLIM.									
125	121	117	111	103	103	97	93	86	102	100	97	103	95	98	96	81	90	74	69	62	55	48	73	101	58	14	TANJONG	125	121	117	111	103	103	97	93	86	102	100	97	103	95	98	96	81	90	74	69	62	55	48	73	101	58	14	TANJONG	125	121	117	111	103	103	97	93	86	102	100	97	103	95	98	96	81	90	74	69	62	55	48	73	101	58	14	TANJONG									

TRUNK AND BRANCH ROADS—TANJONG MALIM TO KUANTAN, KUALA LUMPUR AND MORIB.

Tanjong Malim.

4 Kallang.

15 11 Pahaug Trunk Rd. Jemellon.

3 31 20 The Gap.

41	45	34	14	Tanjung.	
69	65	54	34	20	Rentong.
58	54	43	23	9	Raub.
80	76	65	45	31	Renta.
97	80	92	62	48	17 Kuala Lipis.
228	224	213	193	179	148 165 Kuantan
16	12	1	21	35	55 44 66 83 214 Kuala Kubu.
30	26	15	35	49	69 58 89 97 228 14 Serendah.
36	32	21	41	55	75 64 86 103 234 20 6 Rawang.
54	50	39	59	73	93 82 104 121 232 38 24 18 Batang Berjuntai.
67	63	52	72	86	106 95 117 134 205 51 37 31 13 Kuala Selangor.
74	70	59	79	93	113 102 124 141 272 58 44 38 20 10 Jenam.
87	79	68	88	102	122 111 133 150 281 67 53 47 29 19 9 Kapar.
40	45	34	54	68	88 77 99 116 247 33 19 13 29 38 44 40 Palu.
74	50	39	59	73	93 82 104 121 252 38 24 18 34 43 5 5 Kuala Lumpur.
69	65	54	74	88	108 97 119 136 207 53 39 33 49 39 29 19 10 30 15 Batu Tiga.
79	75	64	84	98	118 107 129 146 277 63 49 43 39 29 19 10 30 25 10 Klang.
84	80	69	80	103	123 112 134 151 282 68 54 48 44 34 24 15 35 30 15 5 Port Swettenham.
100	96	85	105	119	139 128 150 167 298 84 70 64 60 50 40 31 51 46 31 21 26 Banteng.
107	103	92	112	126	146 135 157 174 305 91 77 71 67 57 47 38 56 53 28 33 7 Jugra.
107	102	91	111	125	145 134 156 173 304 90 76 70 66 56 46 37 57 52 37 27 32 6 10 Morib.

Via Kuala Kubu (for distance via Ginting Simpah, see next page). Via Kepong-Bukit Rotan Road.

TRUNK AND BRANCH ROADS—KUALA LUMPUR TO SEREMBAN AND MALACCA.

K. L. M. P. P.

Genting Sempah.

Bentong.

Sungei Besi.

Cheras.

Dusun Tua.

Kajang.

Sepang

Senenyih.

Beranang.

Mantin.

Setul.

Seremban.

Port Dickson.

Magnolia Bay.

Kuala Sawah.

Pengkalan Kempas.

Kuala Klawang.

Titi.

Kuala Pilah.

Rahau.

Rembau.

Tampin.

Alor Gajah.

Malacca.

NINE DAYS BY RAIL BETWEEN PENANG AND SINGAPORE.

First Day.—8 a.m. train from Penang to Taiping, arriving 10.54 a.m. Leave Taiping 3.55 p.m. for Kuala Kangsar, arriving 4.57 p.m. Night at Kuala Kangsar.

Second Day.—11.57 a.m. train to Ipoh, arriving 1.13 p.m. Night at Ipoh.

Third Day.—1.23 p.m. train to Kuala Kubu, arriving 4.54 p.m. Night at Kuala Kubu.

Fourth Day.—Night at Kuala Lipis.

Fifth Day.—4.56 p.m. Train Kuala Kubu to Kuala Lumpur. Night at Kuala Lumpur.

Sixth Day.—At Kuala Lumpur.

Seventh Day.—7.5 a.m. train to Seremban, arriving 9.7 a.m. Night at Seremban.

Eighth Day.—9.38 a.m. train to Port Dickson, arriving 11.10 a.m. and returning at 11.27 a.m. to Seremban. Leave Seremban 2.53 p.m., arrive Malacca 5.30 p.m. Night at Malacca.

Ninth Day.—Leave Malacca 9.30 a.m. train, arrive Singapore 7.14 p.m. (change at Tampin).

TEN DAYS BY RAIL BETWEEN SINGAPORE AND PENANG.

First Day.—7.7 a.m. train to Malacca, arrive 5.10 p.m. Night at Malacca.

Second Day.—2.20 p.m. train to Seremban, arrive 5.6 p.m. Night at Seremban.

Third Day.—Night at Seremban.

Fourth Day.—9.38 a.m. train to Port Dickson, arrive 11.10 a.m., return 3.15 p.m. to Seremban, arriving 4.59 p.m., and leaving for Kuala Lumpur at 5.19 p.m., arriving 7.18 p.m. Night at Kuala Lumpur

NOTE.—These times should be verified at Penang and Singapore before starting, as the Railway Time Table may be changed.

Fifth Day.—At Kuala Lumpur.

Sixth Day.—8.0 a.m. train to Kuala Kubu, arriving 9.28 a.m. Night at Kuala Lipis.

Seventh Day.—Night at Kuala Kubu.

Eighth Day.—9.30 a.m. train to Ipoh, arriving 1.0 p.m. Night at Ipoh.

Ninth Day.—1.14 p.m. train to Kuala Kangsar, arriving 2.30 p.m., leave 5.45 p.m. for Taiping, arriving 6.45 p.m. Night at Taiping.

Tenth Day.—3.30 p.m. train to Penang.

FORTNIGHT'S TOUR.

First Day.—At Penang.

Second Day.—8.0 a.m. train to Bagan Serai, arriving 9.54 a.m. Spend morning and afternoon shooting snipe (October, November, December, January, February, March only). Night at Bagan Serai.

Third Day.—9.55 a.m. train to Taiping, arriving 10.54 a.m. Leave Taiping 3.55 p.m. for Kuala Kangsar, arriving 4.57 p.m. Complete arrangements for houseboat. Night at Kuala Kangsar.

Fourth Day to Seventh Day.—Down the river in houseboat.

Eighth Day.—7.53 a.m. train from Teluk Anson, arriving Ipoh 10.31 a.m. Night at Ipoh.

Ninth Day.—1.23 p.m. train to Kuala Lumpur, arriving 6.22 p.m. Night at Kuala Lumpur.

Tenth Day.—At Kuala Lumpur.

Eleventh Day.—7.5 a.m. train to Seremban. Night at Seremban.

Twelfth Day.—9.20 a.m. train to Malacca (change at Tampin), arriving 12.15 p.m. Night at Malacca.

Thirteenth Day.—9.30 a.m. train to Singapore (change at Tampin), arriving 7.14 p.m.

Fourteenth Day.—At Singapore.

NOTE.—These Times should be verified before starting, as the Railway Time Table may be changed.

PERAK.

TABLE OF DISTANCES BY ROAD.

LARUT.

		Distance	
		M.	F.
From Central Police			
Station, Taiping, to	Race Course, Waterfall Road	0	6 $\frac{3}{4}$
Do.	Kota Bridge	1	2
Do.	Waterfalls, foot of hill ...	1	3
Do.	Gugup	1	5
Do.	Old Race Course (Sungei Planter)	2	5
Do.	Kamunting (<i>via</i> Swettenham Road or Gugup)	3	1
Do.	Simpang Police Station ...	3	6
Do.	Sungei Mati (Trong bridge path junction)	4	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Changkat Serdang	5	0
Do.	Simpang Railway Station ...	5	6
Do.	Matang (Opposite P. & T. Office)	5	7
Do.	Bukit Putus (junction) ...	6	2
Do.	Changkat Jering	6	4 $\frac{3}{4}$
Do.	Teluk Kertang	7	5
Do.	Matang Railway Station ...	8	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Bukit Gantang	9	0
Do.	Ulu Sapetang... ..	9	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	New Kurau Road (junction with Selama Road)	9	1
Do.	Kampung Tuah	10	1 $\frac{1}{4}$
Do.	Kampung Dew	10	4
Do.	Port Weld	11	0
Do.	Top of Pass (Lukit Perapit)	12	0
Do.	Lembah Nenering (Pondok Tanjong)	12	7
Do.	Gapis (Rumah Papan) ...	13	5 $\frac{1}{4}$
Do.	Batu Kurau Police Station ...	15	0
Do.	Padang Rengas	15	0
Do.	Lady Weld's Bungalow ...	15	7

				Distance,	
				M	F
From Central Police					
Station, Taiping, to	Sungei Gedong	16	6 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Jelai	18	0
Do.	Kuala Dal	18	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Briah Resthouse	20	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Bagan Serai	22	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Kuala Kangsar	22	3 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Enggor	27	0
Do.	Simpang Lima	28	3 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Simpang Tiga	29	6 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Batu Tiga	30	0
Do.	Selama...	30	2
Do.	Simpang Ampat	31	3 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Parit Buntar	31	4
Do.	Siputeh	32	5
Do.	Kamuning Estate	Bungalow			
	(opposite)	35	2
Do.	Sungei Siput	36	2
Do.	Plang Resthouse	38	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Gunong Gantang	41	7
From New					
Trong Road to	Kampong Lubok Batu	via	Ayer		
	Kuning Road	11	5
Do.	Trong Police Station	14	2
Do.	Bruas	30	0

KRIAN.

From Parit Buntar to	Simpang Ampat	1	3
Do.	Simpang Tiga	1	3
Do.	Simpang Lima	2	7
Do.	Bagan Tiang, via	Boundary			
	Road	6	0
Do.	Sungei Megat Aris	via	Canal	6	1
Do.	Sungei Bogah	6	1
Do.	Sungei Megat Aris	via	Boun-		
	dary Road	6	6 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Tanjong Piandang	via	Sim-		
	pang Tiga	8	2
Do.	Tanjong Piandang	via	Boun-		
	dary and Coast Roads	8	7

			Distance.	
			M.	F.
From Parit Buntar to	Bagan Serai	9	2
Do.	Kuala Kurau <i>via</i> Jalan Bharu	...	9	5
Do.	Kuala Kurau <i>via</i> Boundary and Coast Roads	14	3
Do.	Kuala Kurau <i>via</i> Tanjong Piandang and Coast Roads	...	14	4
Do.	Sungei Gedong	14	5
From Bagan Serai to	Sungei Semambu	2	7
Do.	Sungei Bogah	3	3
Do.	Sungei Gedong	4	5
Do.	Alor Pongsu	4	7
Do.	Simpang Lima	6	4
Do.	Kuala Kurau <i>via</i> Sungei Siakap Road	7	7
Do.	Parit Buntar	9	3
Do.	Tanjong Piandang <i>via</i> Kuala Kurau and Coast Roads	12	4
Do.	Bukit Merah	21	0
Do.	Sungei Megat Aris <i>via</i> Kuala Kurau and Coast Roads	14	5
Do.	Tanjong Piandang <i>via</i> Simpang Tiga and Parit Buntar	14	7
Do.	Bagan Tiang <i>via</i> Kuala Kurau and Coast Roads	15	4

KUALA KANGSAR.

From Kuala Kang-ar	Police Station to Enggor	4	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Karai (Railway Station)	5	3 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Kampong Merbang	6	3 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Padang Rengas	7	3 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Salak Kechil	7	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Salak Town	9	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Salak Railway Station	10	0
Do.	Kati	11	3 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Bukit Gentang	13	3 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Sungei Sipu Town	14	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Changkat Jelint	15	6 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Jenahl	20	0

						Distance.	
						M.	F.
From Kuala Kangsar							
Police Station to Raban	22	0
Do. Taiping	22	3 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do. Lintang	23	0
Do. Kota Tampan	25	0
Do. Lenggong	32	0
Do. Kenas	7	6

UPPER PERAK.

From Grik to Lawin	18	0
Do. Lenggong	39	0
Do. Kuala Kangsar	71	0

NEW TERRITORY, UPPER PERAK.

From Klian Intan to Kroh	9	4
Do. Baling	18	6
Do. Kupang	25	2
Do. Tawar	31	6
Do. Katumbah	29	0
Do. Kuala Ketil	41	0
Do. Sedin	44	4
Do. Mirabau Pulas	45	0
Do. Padang Serai	54	0
Do. Kreh Railway Station	60	0
Do. <i>via</i> Kreh to Bagan Tuan Kechil (Butterworth for Penang)	75	0
Do. Kulim	70	0
Do. <i>via</i> Kulim to Bukit Mertajam	79	0
Do. <i>via</i> Ara Kudah to Bukit Mertajam	68	0

KINTA.

From Batu Gajah							
Police Station to Batu Gajah Village	0	6
From Batu Gajah Village to Pusing	3	2
Do. Papan	4	6
Do. Siputeh	5	6
Do. Lahat	8	2
Do. Tronoh	9	6
Do. Tekka Menglembu	10	2

					Distance.	
					M.	F.
From Batu Gajah Village to Gopeng	10	6
Do. Ipoh	13	2
Do Perak River	14	2
From Ipoh to Tekka Menglembu	3	0
Do. Tambun	4	6
Do. Lahat Village	5	0
Do. Lahat Railway Station	6	4
Do. Sungei Raia	1	2
Do. Papan	9	4
Do. Tanjong Rambutan	9	6
Do. Pusing	10	0
Do. Chemor	10	0
Do. Gopeng	12	4
Do. Batu Gajah Village	13	2
Do. Sungei Siput	19	2
From Gopeng to Tekka Sungei Raia	1	6
Do. Kuala Dipang	7	0
Do. Sungei Siput	10	6
Do. Kampar Town	12	6
Do. Kampar Railway Station	13	6
Do. Talam	16	2
Do. Malim Nawar	10	7

BATANG PADANG.

From Tapah to Bukit Mas	1	4
Do. Tapah Road	6	0
Do. Temoh Station	6	0
Do. Pahang Road	8	0
Do. Chandleriang	8	0
Do. Bidor Station	8	0
From Bidor to Sangkai	10	4
From Tapah to Kampar	12	4
From Slim to Tanjong Malim	17	0
From Sangkai to Slim	22	0

LOWER PERAK.

From Telok Anson to Changkat Jong	7	0
Do. Utan Melintang	13	0

SELANGOR.

TABLE OF DISTANCES BY ROAD.

KUALA LUMPUR.

Distance from Market Street Bridge,
Miles

Via Batu Road—

Junction with Pahang Road	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
Central Workshops (F.M.S.R.)	2 $\frac{3}{4}$
Batu Estate Road	3 $\frac{1}{4}$
Batu Village (Police Station)... ..	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
Kepong Road (Junction)	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
(To Kepong Station 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ miles further on from Junction)	
Kent Estate	6 $\frac{1}{2}$
Batu Caves Estate	6 $\frac{1}{2}$
Batu Caves	7 $\frac{1}{2}$

Via Rawang Road—

Junction with Batu Road	7
Kanchang Village	12 $\frac{1}{2}$
Rawang	18 $\frac{1}{2}$
Serendah	23 $\frac{1}{2}$
Kuala Kubu	38
Semangko Pass (Gap)	59

Via Pahang Road—

Junction with Batu Road	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
District Hospital	1 $\frac{3}{4}$
Setapak Village	2 $\frac{1}{4}$
Junction with Ulu Gombak Road	3 $\frac{1}{4}$
Hawthornden Estate (about)	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
Wardieburn	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
Setapak Dale Estate	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
Junction with Ulu Klang Road (about)	6 $\frac{1}{2}$
Klang Gates	7
Ulu Klang Halting Bungalow	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
Ulu Gombak Electric Power Station	11 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do. Headworks	16
Ginting Simpah (Hill Club)	23 $\frac{1}{2}$

Distance from Market Street Bridge.
Miles.

Via Ampang Road—

Malay Settlement	(about)	1
Race Course	"	1 ¹ / ₂
Junction with Circular Road	"	2 ¹ / ₄
Junction with Ulu Klang Road	"	4 ¹ / ₂
Ampang Village	"	5 ¹ / ₂
Ulu Klang	"	7

Via Pudooh Road—

Pudooh Gaol	"	1
Pudooh	"	1 ¹ / ₂

Via Cheras Road—

Junction with Ulu Langat Road	"	0
Cheras	"	11
Ulu Langat	"	14
Kajang	"	15
Dusun Tua	"	16 ¹ / ₂
Beranang	"	28 ¹ / ₂
Seremban	"	43

Via Sungei Besi Road—

Salak South	4
Sungei Besi	(about)	9
Serdang	"	11 ¹ / ₂
Kajang	"	19

Via Brickfields Road—

Government Factory	"	1 ¹ / ₂
European Hospital	"	2 ¹ / ₄

Via Petaling Road—

Petaling (Railway Station)	"	6
Kuchai	"	7 ¹ / ₂
Junction of Puchong Road	"	12 ¹ / ₂
Bukit Itam Estate	"	14 ¹ / ₂

From Selangor Club to Railway Station	0 ¹ / ₂
Do. Courts of Justice	0 ¹ / ₂
Do. General Hospital	0 ¹ / ₂
Do. Sultan Street Railway Station	0 ¹ / ₂
Do. Golf Club House	0 ¹ / ₂
Do. Residency	0 ¹ / ₂

				Distance from Market Street Bridge.
				Miles.
From Selangor Club to	Victoria Institution	0 $\frac{3}{4}$
Do.	Lake Club <i>via</i> Club Road	1
Do.	Factory	1 $\frac{1}{4}$
Do.	District Hospital	1 $\frac{3}{4}$
Do.	Race Course	1 $\frac{3}{4}$
Do.	Carcosa <i>via</i> Damansara Road	2

KLANG.

From Klang to	Telok Pulai	2 $\frac{1}{4}$
Do.	Telok Gadong	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Batu Unjor	3
Do.	Telok Menugan	3
Do.	Kuala Klang	5 $\frac{1}{4}$
Do.	Batu Lima (Pandamaran Junction)	5 $\frac{1}{4}$
Do.	Sungei Binjai	6
Do.	Jalan Kabun	8
Do.	Kuala Langat Boundary	8 $\frac{1}{4}$
Do.	Batu Tiga <i>via</i> Batu Tiga Road	10
Do.	Kapar	10 $\frac{1}{4}$
Do.	Damansara <i>via</i> Bukit Kamuning Road	11
Do.	Damansara <i>via</i> Batu Tiga Road	12
Do.	Sungei Serdang	14
Do.	Batu Tiga <i>via</i> Bukit Kamuning Road	14
Do.	Puchong Bridge	16
Do.	Klang to Jugra <i>via</i> Bandar Ferry (Sampan —For Foot Passengers only)	19
Do.	Jugra { <i>via</i> Banting	28 $\frac{1}{4}$
	{ <i>via</i> Sungei Buoya Ferry	22 $\frac{1}{4}$
Do.	Morib	27 $\frac{1}{4}$
Do.	Kuala Selangor	28 $\frac{3}{4}$

ULU SELANGOR.

From Kuala Kubu to	Rasa	4
Do.	Batang Kali	6
Do.	Kerling	6 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Ulu Yam	7
Do.	Sangka Dua	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Sungei Tampeian	11 $\frac{1}{4}$
Do.	Kalumpang	11 $\frac{3}{4}$
Do.	Serendah	14
Do.	Tanjong Malim	16 $\frac{1}{4}$
Do.	Rawang	20

					Distance. Miles.
From Kuala Kubu to Semangko Pass	21
Do.	Kanchiag	25 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Tras...	36
Do.	Raub	44 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Bentong	55
Do.	Kuala Lipis	83
From Rawang to Kanching	6
Do.	Kuala Lumpur	18 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Kuala Selangor	30
From Serendah to Rawang	6

KUALA SELANGOR.

From Kuala Selangor to Telok Pioi	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Assam Java	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Kampung Kuantan	5
Do.	Bukit Rotan	6 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Jeram	10
Do.	Jeram Sea Shore	11
Do.	Bukit Panjang	12
Do.	Batang Berjuntai	13
Do.	Rawang Road (31st mile)	18 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Kapar	18 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Klang	28 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Rawang	31
Do.	Kuala Lumpur <i>via</i> Kepong Road	43

ULU LANGAT.

From Kajang (Sanitary Board Office) to Cheras	3 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Reko	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Semenyih	6 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Serdang...	8
Do.	Bangi	9 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Sungei Besi	11
Do.	Ulu Langat	11 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Taron Village	12
Do.	Pudoh	13
Do.	Beranang	13 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Dusun Tua	14
Do.	Kuala Lumpur <i>via</i> Cheras	15
Do.	Kuala Lumpur <i>via</i> Sungei Besi	19
Do.	Ayer Itam (Kuala Lumpur District Boundary)	17

					Distance. Miles.
From Kajang (Sanitary Board Office) to Seremban (Police Station)	28 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do. Sepang	27
Do. Morib (<i>via</i> Telok Datoh)	37 $\frac{1}{2}$

KUALA LANGAT.

From Jugra to Sungei Rabbah	4
Do. Bandar	5
Do. Glenggang Boyah Road	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do. Klanang	6
Do. Sungei Boyah	6 $\frac{1}{4}$
Do. Morib	10
Do. Klang Boundary (8 $\frac{1}{4}$ mile)	*10 $\frac{3}{4}$
Do. Klang <i>via</i> Bandar Ferry (foot passengers only)	*19
Do. Sepang	37 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do. Banting	7 $\frac{1}{2}$
From Sepang to Labu in Selangor	7 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do. Kuala Sepang	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do. Sepang Road Station (Nilai)	11 $\frac{1}{4}$
Do. Thambo	13 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do. Bata	20 $\frac{1}{2}$

* See Klang.

NEGRI SEMBILAN.

TABLE OF DISTANCES BY ROAD.

SEREMBAN.

					Distance Miles.
From Seremban to Gedong Lalang (on road to Kuala Pilah)	3
Do. Sikamat (on road to Selangor)	3
Do. Paroi (on road to Kuala Pilah)	6
Do. Pantai (on road to Selangor)	7
Do. Setul do.	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do. Mantin do.	10 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do. Bukit Putus (on road to Kuala Pilah)	10 $\frac{1}{4}$

		Distance, Miles.
From Seremban to	Bukit Tanggah (on road to Jelebu)	14 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Lenggeng (on road to Selangor, branching from Setul)	14
Do.	Beranang (on road to Selangor) ...	15
Do.	Tirachi (on road to Kuala Pilah)	15
Do.	Broga (branching from Setul) ...	21 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Muar (on road to Kuala Pilah) ...	21
Do.	Kuala Klawang (on road to Jelebu)	23 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Kuala Pilah	25
Do.	Titi (on road to Jelebu)	29
From Kuala Klawang to	Ulu Triang	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Hospital	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Ulu Klawang School	3
Do.	Kampai School	3 $\frac{1}{2}$
From Kuala Pilah to	top of Senaling Pass	5
Do.	Selaru	6 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Jelai Bridge	10
Do.	Johol Station	14
Do.	Tampin	24
Do.	Batu Kikir	9 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Bahau	16
Do.	Serting	14
Do.	Parit Tinggi	6
From Tampin to	Alor Gajah	8
Do.	Malacca	24
Do.	Seremban	32

P A H A N G.

TABLE OF DISTANCES BY ROAD.

KUALA LIPIS.

		Distance, M. F.
From Kuala Lipis to	Benta	16 5
Do.	Batu Balai	36 0
Do.	Jerantut Railway Crossing ...	56 1
Do.	Jerantut River	62 3
Do.	Tikam	74 7 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Vis	101 3 $\frac{1}{2}$

RAUB DISTRICT.

						Distance.	
						M.	F.
From Raub to	Tras	8	1
Do.	Tranum (Junction)	9	2
Do.	Gap	23	1
Do.	Bentong	29	4
Do.	Ginting Sempah	56	0
Do.	Negri Sembilan (Boundary)	73	2
Do.	Sungei Chero (Batu Talam Road)	9	7
Do.	Bukit Koman	2	0
Do.	Sungei Gali	6	3
Do.	Sungei Dong	8	7
Do.	Sungei Jeruvas	15	2
Do.	Ator	18	5
Do.	Benta (Junction)	22	2
Do.	Kuala Lipis	38	6

BENTONG DISTRICT.

From Bentong to	Kitarik (Junction)	1	5
Do.	Ginting Sempah (Selangor Boundary)	26	4
Do.	Sungei Benus	3	0
Do.	Jeram	6	3
Do.	Sungei Lerai	9	7
Do.	Karak	15	4
Do.	Sungei Gapoi	31	0
Do.	Ginting Simpadang	33	3
Do.	N. Sembilan Boundary	43	6
Do.	Tranum (Junction)	20	2
Do.	Gap	34	1
Do.	Tras	21	3
Do.	Raub	29	4

KUANTAN DISTRICT.

From Kuantan to	Tanah Puteh (Metalled Road)	1	7 $\frac{1}{4}$
Do.	Bukit Ubi	2	6 $\frac{1}{2}$
Do.	Beserah	5	2
Do.	Teluk Sisek	2	7 $\frac{1}{4}$
Do.	Semambu	2	7 $\frac{1}{4}$
Do.	Gambang	19	0
Do.	Maran	53	3 $\frac{1}{4}$
Do.	Lubok Paku Junction	54	1
From Lubok Paku Junction to	Lubok Paku	7	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
From Kuantan to	Pulau Manis Path Junction	17	6 $\frac{1}{4}$
From Pulau Manis Path Junction to	Pulau Manis	16	4

Local and other Moneys, Weights and Measures.

MONLY.

Copper Coins— $\frac{1}{4}$ cent, $\frac{1}{2}$ cent and 1 cent.

Silver Coins—5, 10, 20 and 50 cents pieces and 1 Dollar.

100 cents = 1 Dollar.

(The exchange value of the dollar is fixed at two shillings and fourpence sterling).

WEIGHTS.

Avoirdupois.

1 Tahlil	=	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ oz.
16 Tahils	=	1 Kati	=	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ lb.
1,600 Tahils	=	100 Katis.		
100 Katis	=	1 Pikul	=	133 $\frac{1}{2}$ lbs.
40 Pikuls	=	1 Koyan	=	5,333 $\frac{1}{2}$ lbs.

Goldsmith's Weight.

12 Saga	=	1 Mayam	=	52 Grains.
16 Mayam	=	1 Bongkal	=	832 Grains.
12 Bongkal	=	1 Kati	=	9,984 Grains
				(1 lb. 8 ozs. 16 dwts.).

Opium Weight.

10 Tee	...	=	1 Hoon.		10 Hoon	...	=	1 Chee.
			10 Chee	=	1 Tahlil.	

MEASURES.

Liquid and Dry Measure.

2 Gills	=	1 Pau or Quarter Chupak.
2 Paus	=	1 Pint or Half Chupak.
2 Pints	=	1 Quart or Chupak.
4 Quarts	=	1 Gallon or Gantang.

Long or Cloth Measure.

2 Jengkal	=	1 Hasta.
2 Hasta	=	1 Ela.
2 Ela	=	1 Depa (1 fathom or 6 feet).
20 Kâyu 'pieces	=	1 Kodi (1 score).

Land Measure.

12 Inchi (inches)	=	1 Kâki (1 foot).
6 Kâki	=	1 Depa (6 feet).
4 square) Depa	=	1 Jemba (144 square feet).
100 Jemba	=	1 Penjuru (14,400 square feet).
4 Penjuru	=	1 Relong (1 orlong, or 1 ¹ acre, nearly).
1 Lelong	=	2,400 square feet.
24 Lelong	=	1 Square orlong (1 ¹ acre, nearly).

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